

T.C.
ISTANBUL OKAN UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF GRADUATE EDUCATION

THESIS FOR THE DEGREE OF
PhD OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION
IN ENGLISH BUSINESS PROGRAM

ELHASSAN AGILA MUSTAFA ALSHATSHAT

**LEADERSHIP STYLES AND EMPLOYEE'S WORK OUTCOMES
IN HIGH POWER DISTANCE CULTURE**

ADVISOR
Prof. Dr. Özgür Çengel

ISTANBUL, March 2023

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ABSTRACT

Some researchers believe that effective leadership behaviors differ across cultures, while others hold that the basic structures of effective leadership tend to be similar regardless of cultural differences. The present study basically investigated the effectiveness of Bass's transformational-transactional leadership paradigm in the Libyan setting categorized as a high-power distance culture. This was done by looking at the extent to which these two distinct styles of leadership influence the employee's work outcomes, and whether the cultural value of individual-level power distance has a moderator effect or not. To this end, the study followed the quantitative methodology in addition to a cross-sectional survey strategy. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment were adopted in the study model as elements of employee's work outcomes. Primary data was gathered utilizing a structured questionnaire with the participation of a random sample of "321" white-collar employees who work in public commercial banks' branches located in "Tripoli" and "Benghazi". Besides, the study relied on well-known measures and elements that had been previously developed and used in many past related studies. Leadership styles were measured by (MLQ 5X-Short), job satisfaction using (JSI), and organizational commitment by (OCQ), while power distance orientation was measured using (PDO) scale. Primary data were analyzed through both descriptive and inferential statistics utilizing SPSS version 26. Yielded results revealed that in Libyan public commercial banks, transformational and transactional leadership behaviors positively predict employee's work outcomes. Specifically, there was a statistically significant positive effect of leadership styles on job satisfaction and organizational commitment in general. Most importantly, the transformational style of leadership was more influential, indicating its preference in the Libyan cultural context. This actually means providing additional support for the notion of the universality of the transformational leadership paradigm and its applicability across cultures including those with a high-power distance.

Additionally, the results of the study showed that the cultural value of power distance at the individual level, contrary to expectations, did not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership style and both job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Earlier literature has proposed that the positive influence of transformational leaders on employees' satisfaction and commitment is predicated on the power distance orientation of followers. Two other important findings, as were found that the cultural value of the power

distance did not also moderate the relationship between transactional leadership style and organizational commitment. In return, it negatively moderated the relationship between transactional leadership and job satisfaction, meaning that the positive influence of transactional leadership style on employees' satisfaction is enhanced when employees hold lower levels of power distance and undermined when they hold higher levels. The latter finding, particularly, was inconsistent with the literature proposing that the lower the power distance, the greater the chances of transformational, not transactional, leadership practices. Ultimately, it is thought that the results obtained here would contribute to enriching research on the effectiveness of transformational leadership in the Libyan setting and analyzing its implications in the workplace. Furthermore, theoretical and practical implications were discussed, and future research directions were also addressed in this study.

Keywords: Transformational Leadership, Transactional Leadership, Employee's Work Outcomes, Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, Power Distance Orientation.

ÖZET

Bazı araştırmacılar, etkili liderlik davranışlarının kültürler arasında farklılık gösterdiğine inanırken, diğerleri, kültürel farklılıklardan bağımsız olarak etkili liderliğin temel yapılarının benzer olma eğiliminde olduğunu savunuyor. Mevcut çalışma temel olarak Bass'ın dönüşümsel-işlemsel liderlik paradigmasının yüksek güç mesafesi kültürüyle tanımlanan Libya ortamındaki etkinliğini araştırmıştır. Bu da, bu iki farklı liderlik tarzının çalışanın iş sonuçlarını ne ölçüde etkilediğine ve bireysel düzeydeki güç mesafesinin kültürel değerinin moderatör bir etkiye sahip olup olmadığına bakılarak yapılmıştır. Bu amaçla çalışmada, çalışma çapraz kesitsel araştırma stratejisine ilaveten nicel metodolojiyi takip etmiştir. Çalışma modelinde iş tatmini ve örgütsel bağlılık çalışanların iş çıktılarının unsurları olarak benimsenmiştir. Birincil veriler, kamu ticari bankalarının "Tripoli" ve "Bingazi" de bulunan şubelerinde çalışan rastgele örneklenmiş "321" beyaz yakalı çalışanın katılımıyla yapılandırılmış bir anket kullanılarak toplanmıştır. Ayrıca, çalışma daha önceden geliştirilen ve geçmişteki birçok ilgili çalışmada kullanılmış bilinen ölçekler ve unsurlara dayandırılmıştır. Liderlik tarzları (MLQ-5X) ile ölçülmüştür, (JSI) kullanarak iş tatmini, (OCQ) tarafından örgütsel bağlılık, güç mesafesi oryantasyonu (PDO) ölçeği kullanılarak ölçülmüştür. Birincil veriler, SPSS versiyon 26 yazılımı kullanılarak hem tanımlayıcı hem de çıkarımsal istatistiklerle analiz edilmiştir. Elde edilen sonuçlar, Libya kamu ticari bankalarında dönüşümsel ve işlemsel liderlik davranışlarının, çalışanların iş çıktılarını pozitif olarak öngördüğünü ortaya koymuştur. Spesifik olarak, liderlik tarzları genel olarak iş tatmini ve örgütsel bağlılık üzerinde istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir pozitif etkisi vardı. En önemlisi, dönüşümsel liderlik tarzı daha etkiliydi ve Libya kültürel bağlamındaki tercihini gösteriyordu. Bu aslında dönüşümsel liderlik paradigmasının evrenselliği ve güç mesafesi yüksek olanlar da dahil olmak üzere kültürler arasında uygulanabilirliği kavramına ek destek sağlamak anlamına gelir.

Ayrıca çalışmanın sonuçları, güç mesafesinin bireysel düzeydeki kültürel değerinin, beklentilerin aksine, dönüşümcü liderlik tarzı ile hem iş tatmini hem de örgütsel bağlılık arasındaki ilişkiyi düzenlemediğini göstermiştir. Daha önceki literatür, dönüşümcü liderlerin çalışanların memnuniyeti ve bağlılığı üzerindeki olumlu etkisinin, takipçilerin güç mesafesi yönelimine dayandığını öne sürmüştür. Diğer iki önemli bulgu, güç mesafesinin kültürel değerinin etkileşimci liderlik stili ile örgütsel bağlılık arasındaki ilişkiyi düzenlemediği bulunmuştur. İşlemsel liderlik ile iş memnuniyeti arasındaki ilişkiyi negatif olarak yönlendirir,

yani işlemsel liderlik tarzının çalışanların memnuniyeti üzerindeki pozitif etkisi çalışanlar daha düşük güç mesafesi seviyelerine sahip olduklarında artar ve daha yüksek seviyelerde olduklarında zayıflar. Özellikle ikinci bulgu, güç mesafesi ne kadar düşükse, işlemsel liderlik değil, dönüşümsel liderlik uygulamalarının şansının o kadar yüksek olduğunu öne süren literatürle tutarsızdı. Sonuç olarak, burada elde edilen sonuçların, Libya ortamında dönüşümsel liderliğin etkinliğine ilişkin araştırmaların zenginleştirilmesine ve iş yerindeki yansımalarının analiz edilmesine katkı sağlayacağı düşünülmektedir. Ayrıca bu çalışmada teorik ve pratik çıkarımlar tartışılmış ve gelecekteki araştırma yönleri de ele alınmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Dönüşümsel Liderlik, İşlemsel Liderlik, Çalışanın İş Sonuçları, İş Tatmini, Örgütsel Bağlılık, Güç Mesafesi Oryantasyonu.



DEDICATION

Preparing for the Ph.D. degree has been a long and full challenging journey, it would not have been possible (after the grace of Allah Almighty) without the understanding and support of my little family. I really thank my wife for her encouragement and endless moral support throughout the entire duration of my doctoral years. My children; Jihad, Elaph, and Thoha, also deserve my sincerest and deepest gratitude for their patience and continuous prayers for success. It actually took a lot of our family time to get this work done, and. I very much appreciate their patience in keeping me busy for all. that time. This dissertation is entirely dedicated to them. I hope this work will one day be another example for my children to realize that they also can do whatever good deeds they wish to do.

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LIST of ABBREVIATIONS

TFL	Transformational Leadership Style
TSL	Transactional Leadership Style
EWO	Employee's Work Outcomes
JS	Job Satisfaction
OC	Organizational Commitment
AC	Affective Commitment
CC	Continuance Commitment
NC	Normative Commitment
PDO	Power Distance Orientation
MLQ	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
OCQ	Organizational Commitment Questionnaire
JSI	Job Satisfaction Index

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Study Background

In today's competitive business environment, most business organizations around the world are facing more challenges and rapid changes whether they are domestic or external. Libyan organizations in general are no exception, especially when talking about government institutions, including the banking sector institutions as they are the backbone of the country's economic life. In accordance with recent reports issued by some international organizations, including the World Bank and Transparency International, Libyan state institutions have generally suffered from poor overall performance due to mismanagement and excessive bureaucratic procedures. Which has naturally prevented them from effectively achieving their own goals and strengthening the country's national economy. This basically requires all these institutions at various managerial levels to work continuously to develop themselves and use their various resources more efficiently. On top of these resources comes the "human resource" (Armstrong, 2012). It has been suggested that human resources such as employees are the most valuable of all the resources of an organization, as other resources will not be used optimally if the organization does not maintain, through its leaders, capable and motivated human resources (Aboramadan & Dahleez, 2020).

Comparing leadership in general to other sources within an organization, leadership has been shown to hold a more influential role in directing employee behavior and shaping their attitudes (Lee et al., 2019; Karya et al., 2021). Over years, managerial leadership has evolved from a concentration on task orientation, obedience to commands, and top-down administrative control to today's recognition of the need to originate a more relationship-oriented workplace that empowers employees, aids their development, and fosters organizational change (Hannay, 2009). Bass's transformational leadership paradigm is one of the contemporary approaches designed to achieve these ends, which can be adopted in different organizational contexts (Si & Wei, 2012). Recently, research efforts have primarily spotlighted transformational and transactional leadership styles, which have been proven as highly useful approaches for increasing the leaders' effectiveness in influencing the employee's work outcomes, the most important of which are job satisfaction and organizational commitment (e.g., Yang & Islam, 2012; Yavirach, 2012; Rothfelder et al., 2013; Osman & Uli, 2014; Shurbagi, 2014; Lyndon & Rawat, 2015; Gitoho et al., 2016; Gulluce et al., 2016; Abouraia & Othman, 2017; Puni et al., 2018; Kouni et al., 2018; Baamah et al., 2018; Cho et al., 2019;

Sürücü & Sağbaş, 2020; Karya et al., 2021; Mirsultan & Marimuthu, 2021; Skopak & Nereida, 2022). Although much research has been done on the relationships amongst these leadership styles and many employee's work outcomes, empirical support remains insufficient regarding the consequences of such as these relationships, and thus more empirical studies are needed to examine the role of transformational leadership in motivating employee behaviors and attitudes across cultures (Aboramadan & Dahleez, 2020; Lai, et al., 2020)

Given leadership does not often exist independently of perceptions of followers' national cultural values (House et al., 2004), understanding the cultural dimensions and how they affect the nature of leader-follower relationships makes the leader aware of the kind of the workplace that requires development to facilitate its best implementation (Hofstede, 2010). As such, organizational psychologists point out the significance of an individual's cultural values in predicting the nature of superior-subordinate relationships (Earley & Erez, 1997; Smith et al., 2002). Such values usually impose certain assumptions, beliefs, and norms on their members, and thus determine their understanding of reality and their behavior in it (Janićijević, 2019). Therefore, the cultural effects on organizational relations and practices have become a very important research topic in the areas of organization and leadership (Mojić, 2004).

One cultural value, the power distance, is essentially significant in the organizational research area since power is ingrained in hierarchical institutions (Daniels & Greguras, 2014; Uzun, 2020). As per Hofstede (2011), power distance basically refers to “the extent to which a society accepts the fact that power in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally”. In this respect, Hofstede Insights' findings (2021) uncovered that “Libya” has been categorized among the group of countries that hold a high degree of power distance as receives a score of (100) on the Hofstede Scale, which is much higher than the global average (55)¹. This result, of course, refers to that "Libya" embodied a culture in which hierarchy was accorded as the norm. As per Schwartz (2006), hierarchal cultures count on hierarchy systems of appointed roles to confirm productive and accountable behaviors. They believe the unequable distribution of authority, resources, and roles is fascinating and even legitimate. Values of authority, social power, and wealth are of nice importance in hierarchy' cultures (ibid).

¹ All results are available via <https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison/libya/>.

Geert Hofstede and colleagues believe such cultural traits are valuable issues that leader ought to consider for helping adopt certain leadership behaviors. Therefore, they see that leadership, to be effective, ought to be in harmony with the cultural qualities of the society in which it is to be applied - and they also deny the belief that there are universal ideas and concepts of managerial or leadership practices (Hofstede et al., 2010). This perspective is theoretically compatible with the theory of implicit leadership which has been backed by a great deal of research effort (Rockstuhl et al., 2022), implying that leadership is practiced differently across cultures (Yie, 2021). For instance, works of research indicate that high-power distance societies are more resort more to favor a transactional leadership style, while low-power distance societies favor the transformational pattern of leadership (Yukl, 2013; Cho et al., 2019; Nawaz et al., 2020). Because of the large communication gap that mainly exists between managers/superiors and their subordinates in communities with high (rather than low) power distance, employees/subordinates are more reluctant to challenge their supervisors and more afraid to express disagreements with management decisions (Dickson et al., 2003). As a result, leadership style in a certain culture is largely probable to be malfunctional in other cultures (Punj & Krishnan, 2006). Yet, Bass argues that exists universality in his paradigm of transformational leadership. That is, the same concept of phenomenon can be noticed across a broad range of cultures (Bass, 1997a). He adds that exceptions can be grasped as consequences of unusual traits of cultures or organizations. According to him, supportive evidence has been compiled in research carried out in many organizations across different sectors and cultures to document the applicability of the paradigm (ibid). He also stated another important conclusion, that transformational leadership boosts transactional leadership in predicting important work outcomes (Rothfelder et al., 2013). According to House et al. (2002), such conclusions are characteristic of the universal perspective of cross-cultural leadership. As the prominent mark here, GLOBE program findings reported transformational leadership as a universal style that can apply across cultures (House et al., 2004).

Consistent with that, a multitude of cross-cultural empirical studies indicates that transformational leadership practices can be used as a universal leadership style as it is flexible enough to adapt to unlike cultures while making some changes in practices as needed (Deveshwar & Aneja, 2014). However, compared with other regions of the world, there appears to be a rarity of research exploring the effectiveness of such a style of leadership in the context of the Libyan society with a hierarchical culture, which is quite different from Western societies with low-power distance cultures where the idea of transformational lead-

ership was born and grown. Since hierarchical societies generally tend to adopt very top-down leadership practices (Hofstede et al., 2010), there is a likelihood that such cultures may not be congenial with transformational leadership which urges subordinates to participate and empowers them to make independent decisions (Walumbwa et al., 2005). Thus, the question remains whether transformational leadership is effective in supporting employee's work outcomes in a different cultural and organizational context, in this case, "Libya", and to what extent the notion of the universality of the transformational leadership paradigm can be supported as proposed by Bass, prompting actually to conduct such a study in the Libyan cultural context depicted as a high-power distance culture.

1.2. Study Questions

Creswell (2009) connotes that the importance of the wording of research question(s) lies in the fact that it defines the focus and scope of the study to prevent distraction in the interpretation of unimportant ideas, and thus ensure that the research is on the right direction. So, the study questions can be worded as follows:

- What is the influence of leadership styles on employee's work outcomes in the Libyan cultural context?
- What is the influence of leadership styles on employee's work outcomes under the direct effect of the power distance value?
- What is the most influential leadership style in the Libyan cultural context?

1.3. Study Objectives

This study generally pursues to empirically investigate the effectiveness of the transformational and transactional leadership paradigm in supporting employee's work outcomes in the Libyan cultural context. To achieve this goal, the objectives of the study were formulated as follows:

- Investigating the effect of leadership's styles on employee's work outcomes in the Libyan context.
- Detecting the impact of power distance value on the relationships between leadership's styles and work outcomes.
- Finding out the Libyan subordinates' preferences for their leaders' behaviors.

1.4. Study Concepts

Leadership style is a set of related behaviors that represent an approach to dealing with subordinates (Spector, 2012). Naturally, each leadership's style has different methods to influence and motivate (Vito et al., 2014).

Transactional leadership basically indicates orienting and motivating employees to work towards specific goals by exchanging rewards in return for productivity (Robbins & Coulter, 2017). The transactional leader uses both rewards and punishments for obtaining subordinates' obedience, this manner of leadership centers on the function of organization, supervision and group's action (Harrison, 2018).

Transformational leadership indicates guiding and inspiring subordinates' efforts by transforming and stimulating subordinates to realize extraordinary outcomes (Robbins & Coulter, 2017). A transformational leader uses the trust and confidence that subordinates place in them to motivate behavior and enhance the self-worth of subordinates to go the extra mile for their organization (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Employee's work outcomes can be defined as affective reactions tied with work-related attitudes and behaviours (Ambula et al., 2016). Two of these outcomes that are typically associated with leadership styles that are of utmost importance in the work-place are job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Walumbwa et al., 2005).

Job satisfaction is defined as an emotional state that resulting from an individual's comparison of desired and actual work outcomes (George & K.A., 2018). It refers to how satisfied an employee is about their job; the degree to which a person likes or dislikes their job; employee's positive and negative feedback about how content they are with the job (Spector, 2012).

Organizational commitment refers to attachment and loyalty namely, it is linked to the employees' feelings toward their organization (Armstrong, 2012). In other words, organizational commitment is depicted as a psychological tie that links an employee to an organization that makes it less likely for employee to leave the organization (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Power distance orientation is the extent to which individuals accept the unequable distribution of authority in organizations or institutions (Kirkman et al., 2009). Those who think superiors should have a lot of power over subordinates are said to have a high-power distance, whereas Individuals who think superiors should only have a little power are said to have a low-power distance (Wang & Guan, 2018).

1.5. Study Model

Drawing on an intensive review of literature works, transactional and transformational leadership styles have been determined as independent variables, work outcomes, namely, job satisfaction and organizational commitment as dependent variables, and the cultural dimension of power distance as moderating variable. So, the study model has been proposed as follows:

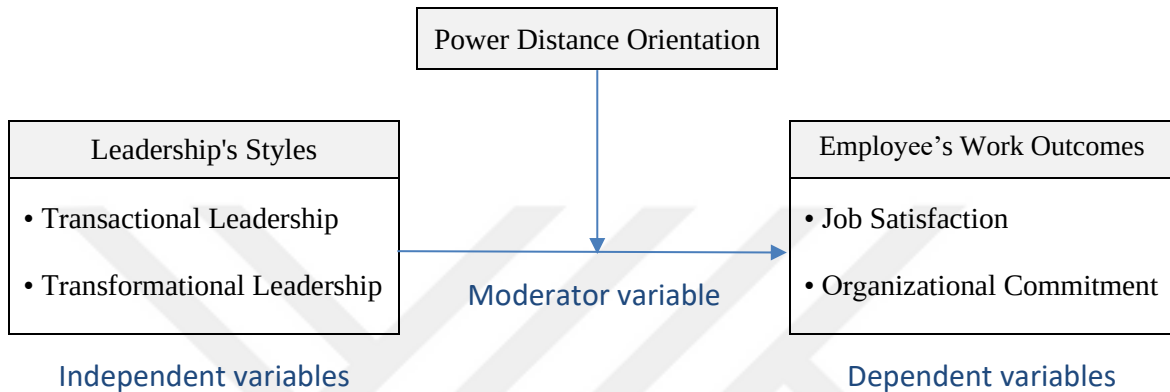


Figure 1.1: The Study Model

1.6. Study Hypotheses

Based on the proposed study model and an in-depth review of several previous studies presented in Chapter 2, the present study was designed to test a number of hypotheses with the aim of determining the appropriateness of transformational and transactional leadership styles in the Libyan environment. For this purpose, firstly, the causal effect relationships amongst leadership styles and employee's work outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational commitment) were examined in order to understand whether the superior is able to increase or decrease work outcomes when they adopt either of the two leadership styles, namely, transactional or transformational and thus make their subordinates more contributive to the organization. Secondly, the effect of the cultural value of individual-level power distance on the above-mentioned relationships was tested, as sample individuals were expected to have high or low power distance characteristics regardless of the Libyan society's general orientation within this dimension. According to Kirkman et al. (2009), the cultural orientations of the value of power distance should not be ignored in research on the effect of transformational leadership on followers in the work-place, which is in line with Bass's (1997a) viewpoint that such values differences can moderate leader-follower relationships.

Based on that, and based on an extensive literature review, nine major hypotheses and a set of sub-hypotheses were formulated to be empirically tested for answering the study questions raised in Section 1.3. These hypotheses are:

H1 : Transformational leadership style positively influences job satisfaction.

H2 : Transformational leadership style positively influences organizational commitment.

H2a: Transformational leadership style positively influences affective commitment.

H2b: Transformational leadership style positively influences continuance commitment.

H2c: Transformational leadership style positively influences normative commitment.

H3 : Transactional leadership style positively influences job satisfaction.

H4 : Transactional leadership style positively influences organizational commitment.

H4a: Transactional leadership style positively influences affective commitment.

H4b: Transactional leadership style positively influences continuance commitment.

H4c: Transactional leadership style positively influences normative commitment.

H5 : Power distance orientation moderates the connection between transformational leadership style and job satisfaction.

H6 : Power distance orientation moderates the connection between transformational leadership style and organizational commitment.

H7 : Power distance orientation moderates the connection between transactional leadership style and job satisfaction.

H8 : Power distance orientation moderates the connection between transactional leadership style and organizational commitment.

H9 : In the Libyan context, the transformational leadership style influences employee's work outcomes better than the transactional leadership style.

1.7. Study Significance

The originality and primary value of this study lie in two main aspects. First, it addressed a research gap related to the transformational-transactional leadership approach in the Libyan Arab context. Although much research has been done on the relationship between these leadership styles and many employee's work outcomes, empirical support remains insufficient regarding the consequences of such as these relationships- particularly in Eastern countries compared to their Western counterparts, making further investigation

into this trend is necessary (Alnughaimish, 2018; Aboramadan & Dahleez, 2020; Caza et al., 2021). Second, the literature review indicates that despite the importance of transformational and transactional leadership styles in increasing knowledge of employee's work outcomes, only a few empirical studies included aspects of cultural orientation from this perspective to explain the mechanisms by which leadership style influences work outcomes. Thus, this study can also add to the existing literature by checking for moderation by individual-level power distance orientation in the relationship between leadership styles and employees' work outcomes in a Libyan context.

Based on this, a number of points that represent the significance of this study can be included:

- 1 Enriching and expanding the research work on the transformational-transactional leadership paradigm, thus contributing to filling the research gap related to these leadership styles in the context of the Libyan Arab society.
2. Providing a better understanding of the transformational leadership model, thus enabling practitioners at all levels in Libyan organizations to be more aware of this contemporary style of leadership, which represents one of the appropriate management ways to lead the desired change processes and achieve effectiveness.
3. Calling for more research to provide a broader understanding of the role of power distance in the leader-follower relationship, as well as paving the way for investigating the effects of other cultural dimensions of Hofstede in such relationships.

1.8. Study Design

Depending on the objectives and questions of the study, a deductive approach was followed to develop and formulate research hypotheses. Moreover, a quantitative research methodology and a cross-sectional survey method using questionnaires on all variables of interest have been adopted (Saunders et al., 2016).

The target population for this study comprises Libyan employees (superiors & subordinates) at the middle and supervisory levels of Libyan public commercial banks. In this sense, a random probability sample was selected from employees of the branches of those banks within two main cities, namely; "Tripoli" and "Benghazi". The public commercial banks include; Sahara Bank, Jumhouria Bank, Al-Wahda Bank, National Commercial Bank, and

North Africa Bank. These foundations are counted as the largest commercial banks operating in the country, which are characterized by embracing large numbers of educated labor forces - of both genders - who represent in general all groups and tribes of Libyan society.

Regarding data analysis, a range of descriptive and inferential statistical techniques were used to investigate the objectives and questions of the study. Linear regression analysis was applied to test the hypotheses utilizing the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 26.0 software.

1.9. Study Structure

This study is structured into five chapters that can be briefed as follows:

As shown above, chapter "1" contained the general framework of the study and a rationale for conducting it. So, the rest of the thesis was structured in the following way. First, chapter "2" contained a literature review of variables adopted in the study model, with clarification of the most important correlations between these variables by reviewing some previous empirical studies. Next, chapter "3" discussed details of a methodology being utilized in detail. Also, the yielded results of this quantitative study were shared in Chapter "4". Finally, Chapter "5" contained a discussion of the study's findings, implications, conclusions, and limitations, in addition to proposing some directions for subsequent or future studies.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

The nature of quantitative studies usually requires a theoretical framework, by which the literature and previous studies relating to the variables under research are reviewed in order to provide an overview of current knowledge that helps answer the research question(s) (Saunders et al., 2016). This chapter begins with an overview of leadership and most of its theories, reaching transformational and transactional leadership. Next, it reviews concepts of employee outcomes of job satisfaction and organizational commitment and their relationship to transformation and transactional leadership. Finally, it presents Hofstede's cultural dimensions with an emphasis on the power-distance dimension by providing prior research evidence indicating its potential influence, as a contextual dimension, on the relationship amongst leadership behaviors and employee's work outcomes.

2.2. Leadership

2.2.1. Definitions of Leadership

Whilst various definitions of the 'leadership' concept have been presented in the behavioral sciences literature, yet there is no single, comprehensive definition that encompasses all divergent views about leadership (House et al., 2004). Nevertheless, as Bass (1990) stated, there is a sufficient similarity among definitions to permit a rough scheme of classification. A common idea that runs through various definitions is that leadership comprises influencing the beliefs, attitudes, behaviors, and feelings of others. Therefore, one can be argued that the essence of leadership is "influencing" (Lussier & Achua, 2016). Daft (2008) pointed out that "influence" implies that the relationship amongst individuals is not passive; also inherent in those definitions is the concept that effect is multi-directional and non-coercive. Although one who owns such "influence" is referred to as a leader, Spector (2012) argued that even non-leaders influence others, but leaders hold more influence than non-leaders.

In this meaning, there are numerous definitions and approaches to leadership. To name a few, Daft (2008) defines "leadership as an influence's relationship among leader and followers who intend true changes and outcomes that mirror their shared purposes". In a similar manner, Arenas et al. (2017) connote that leadership is the one's ability to influence the behaviors of others towards achieving a specific goal. Also, Northouse (2019) depicts it

as "a process by which one influences a set of people to achieve common goals". In the same sense, Armstrong (2012) believes leadership is "the ability to convince others willingly to conduct differently". Robbins and Coulter (2017) proposed that "leadership is a process of leading a group of people and influencing those ones to realize its aims". It is one's ability to influence, enable, and motivate other individuals to engage in the effectiveness and success of the organization (House et al., 2004). That is, getting followers to do their best to realize the desired result, where leaders do not count on their formal authority to persuade followers to do as they are asked. But they take an interest in an interaction with the followers or they grow and expand the interest of the subordinates (Northouse, 2019). Thus, leadership, through influencing, endeavors evolving and communicating a future vision, motivating individuals, and securing their engagement (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014).

2.2.2. Leadership versus Management

People often tend to confuse the two concepts or terms of management and leadership (Saha, 2006). It may be assumed that all managers are also leaders, yet this is not true as some managers do not practice leadership, and some individuals lead without holding any managerial positions (Wajdi, 2017), leadership does not necessarily take place within the hierarchical structure of the institution as managership (Mullins, 2010). Indeed, "management" and "leadership" are similar in many aspects (Bass & Bass, 2008; Wajdi, 2017), and using these terms interchangeably is rather widespread (Lussier & Achua, 2016). However, the leadership literature highlights clear differences between these two concepts, despite the person may simultaneously be a manager and a leader of a department (Bass & Bass, 2008).

Grounded on the rule of "influencing" mentioned above in definitions of leadership, a leader holds the ability to influence others; whereas a manager may not. Thus, the leader is not necessarily a person who holds some formal position such manager (Lussier & Achua, 2016). As reported by Bass and Bass (2008), manager who is not a leader will organize and structure the department, but will not enable its members to improve their performance. Moreover, they will control what happens in the department but will not empower employees to make decisions. Instead, as Mullins (2010) cleared, leader is concerned more with attention to communicating with, motivating, encouraging, and involving employees in advising and making decisions.

Two different consequences result from the distinctions between management and leadership. Management preserves a degree of stability and order through an efficiency culture

that assists the institutions in consistently achieving short-term results (Daft, 2008). Leadership, instead, generates change within an integrity culture and positive relations that help the institution blossom in the long-range (Mullins, 2010). Namely, a manager accepts and maintains the status quo (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014), unlike a leader who deems status quo as a challenge (Bennis & Nanus, 1997). Also, Bass and Bass (2008) perceived management as being imposed on the group but leadership as being accorded by the group. The management process generally encourages emotional distance by following rationality (Saha, 2006), whereas leadership means being emotionally connected to others (Channer & Hope, 2001).

Mullins (2010) sums up those differences by saying whereas managers tend towards reliance on systems structure, and strategy, leaders, have an inherent inclination for utilization of the "soft elements" of style, staff, skills, and shared goals. This is what Kriel (2010) concluded that leaders put people first and strategy second.

In the end, although good management required to help institutions meet present commitments, good leadership required to progress the organization toward the future. That is, the two must be combined for the organization's success by achieving their intended outcomes (Daft, 2008; Kriel, 2010; Mullins, 2010).

2.2.3. Overview of Leadership Theories

Overall, the study of leadership's theories emerged under five approaches to leadership, namely; great man, traits, behavioral, situational, and contemporary approach. Each of them is generally reviewed in the following sections to reach the transformational-transaction leadership paradigm, which is addressed in some detail as one of the present study's variables.

2.2.3.1. Great Man Theory

The "great man" theory was presented as the first theory to understand the leadership phenomenon (Madanchian et al., 2016). It states that some individuals are born with the necessary attributes that set them apart from others and that these attributes are responsible for their assuming positions of power and authority (Daft, 2008). It is from this approach that the notion of leaders being "born not made" evolved (Bans-Akutey, 2021). And this theory was standard in the 19th and early 20th centuries (Madanchian et al., 2016). In this theory, has been claimed that leaders can be discovered but not developed; that the only way to make a leader is to give him the opportunity to lead, to exercise the unique traits of

leadership that they inherited (Day & Zaccaro, 2014). Later the theory developed from the dogma that leaders are born to be in their role at a specific time to a reflection of certain "traits" that envisage a potential for leadership (Khan et al., 2016).

2.2.3.2. Traits Theory

The "trait theory" of leadership suggests that certain qualities (traits) distinguish leaders from other persons (Bass, 1990). Where early trait scholars -during the first half of the 20th century- researched the personality attributes that they thought were related to the effectiveness of leadership- such as physical and personality characteristics, competencies, and values instead of researching exceptional historical figures. viz, the "great man" approach- (Fleenor, 2006; Colbert, 2012). Consequently, the "trait theory" differs from the "great man" theory in that the first "assumes leaders possess certain traits", while the second claims that "leaders are born or destined by nature".

Although it is at times difficult to find a pure difference between the trait theory and the great man theory to the extent that some may regard them as one theory (Toh & Kuajien, 2019), early attempts generally identifying effective leaders' traits were unsuccessful (Robbins & Coulter, 2017). That is because there is no consistent body of traits that differentiates leaders from others across a diversity of situations (Northouse, 2019). This is mainly due to that this approach focused exclusively on the leader and ignored followers or the situation. Therefore, leadership studies from the late 1940s to the mid-1960s centered on the preferred behavioral patterns which leaders showed (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

2.2.3.3. Behavioral Theories

The "behavior theory" puts emphasis upon the actions and behaviour of the leaders rather than what their personal characteristics might be (Bans-Akutey, 2021). Namely, it is concerned with finding out which leader behaviors are effective in all or perceived situations (Harrison, 2018). The four main leader behavior studies are summarized as follows:

University of Iowa Studies

University of Iowa studies by "Kurt Lewin" and his associates, explored three leadership styles to find the most effective approach and determine their impact on subordinates' attitudes and productivity (Borkowski, 2016). They identified the Authoritarian, Democratic, and Laissez-faire Leadership styles. This relates to the behavior of the leaders in relation

to their group (Marquis & Huston, 2009). The autocratic style described a leader who dictated work methods and made unilateral decisions. The democratic style described a leader who involved employees in decision-making, and delegated authority. Finally, the laissez-faire style's leader lets individuals make decisions and accomplish the task in whatsoever way they saw fit (Robbins & Coulter, 2017). Overall, the results signaled that the democratic leadership style appeared the most successful (Borkowski, 2016).

Ohio State University Studies

Research at Ohio State University, led by "Ralph Stogdill", resulted in the postulation of two major dimensions of leader behaviour- that accounted for most of the leadership behaviors described by research groups' members (Sadler, 2003). These dimensions are "consideration" and "initiating structure" (Mullins, 2010). "Consideration" points to the need for our understanding of human relations and is related to employee needs. On the other hand, the "initiating structure" indicates the task while dealing with the needs of the organization (Fairholm & Fairholm, 2009). In the research, it is assumed that the two behavioral dimensions are independent of each other (Harrison, 2018; Northouse, 2019), where a leader can display both behaviors simultaneously at high or low levels (Daft, 2008). Since a leader can be low or high on initiating structure and/or consideration, four leadership patterns are evolved (Lussier & Achua, 2016). As per the findings of the research, the most effective leadership style has been determined as a situation where both the initiating structure and consideration behaviour are high (Bertocci, 2009).

University of Michigan Studies

At about the same time that the "Ohio State studies" were underway, researchers at the "University of Michigan" led by "Rensis Likert" were also conducting research in an attempt to determine the most effective style of leadership based on two dimensions of leadership behavior: an employee-centered focus or a production-centered focus. These terms are similar to the consideration and structure's dimensions (Mullins, 2010; Borkowski, 2016; Robbins & Coulter, 2017). However, unlike "Ohio University Studies", the leadership styles put forward here are distinct styles in opposition to one another (Daft, 2008; Bertocci, 2009). Accordingly, a leader/superior cannot simultaneously be both production and employee-oriented (Harrison, 2018). That is, the more a leader displays employee-oriented behavior, the more they move away from production-oriented behavior, and vice versa. This point is the essential difference between "Ohio" and "Michigan" research. Besides, according to the

research results of the University of Michigan, the most effective leadership was employee-oriented leadership (Johns & Moser, 2001; Mullins, 2010).

The Managerial Grid Model

The "Managerial Grid Model" was first developed in the 1960s by "R. Blake" and "J. Mouton" (Northouse, 2019). The Model builds mainly on the "Ohio State" and "Michigan" studies; it is centered on the same two leadership dimensions, which combined a focus on tasks and a focus on the interrelation with the subordinate (Harrison, 2018). The concern for both individuals and production are measured through a model that has two intersecting axes on a scale from "1" to "9" each. Therefore, the grid has "81" possible combinations of concern for individuals and production. However, the "grid" identifies "5" distinct leadership styles: (1,1) impoverished; (9,1) authority compliance; (1,9) country club; (5,5) middle of the road; and (9,9) team leader (Lussier & Achua, 2016). Built on the model, the team leadership pattern often is deemed the most effective style- as the leader strives for maximum performance and employee satisfaction (Daft, 2008; Lussier & Achua, 2016).

2.2.3.4. Contingency Theories

While behavioral theories may help managers to develop particular leadership behaviors, they give little guidance as to what constitutes effective leadership in different situations (Villoria, 2016). Therefore, the main proposition in contingency theories is that the effectiveness of a given leadership style is contingent on the situation (Morgan et al., 2019). That is, certain leader behaviors will be effective in some situations but not in others (Hartog & Koopman, 2001). In this vein, the three major contingency theories can be found as follows:

Fiedler's Contingency Model

The first comprehensive contingency model for leadership was developed by "Fred Fiedler" (Robbins & Coulter, 2017). He suggested that there is no sole best manner for managers to lead; situations will create different leadership style requirements (Villoria, 2016). Fiedler looked at three situations that could determine the condition of a managerial task, namely leader-member relations, position power, and task structure (Hartog & Koopman, 2001). These environmental variables are combined in a weighted sum that is termed "favorable" at one end and "unfavorable" at the other (Daft, 2008). A situation is "highly favorable" when there is a good relationship between the leader and the group, a clear-cut structure, and when the leader has a strong position of power. On the flip side, a

situation is "least favorable" when there are poor leader-member relations, unstructured tasks, and weak leader positions of power (Gill, 2011; Harrison, 2018).

"Fiedler" concluded that task-oriented style is preferable at the clearly defined extremes of "favorable" and "unfavorable" environments, whereas relationship-oriented leaders performed better in moderately favorable situations (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Theory

The situational leadership model developed by "Paul Hersey" and "Ken Blanchard" suggests that there are two distinctive sets of behaviors that a leader uses when leading others; "directive behaviour" and "supportive behaviour" (Fulop & Linstead, 1999; Howell & Wanasika, 2019). This model posits also that the "maturity" levels of subordinates -the main situational variable- play the greatest role in determining which leadership styles are most appropriate (Villoria, 2016). Placed on the assumption that followers' skills and motivation (Readiness/maturity) vary over time, situational leadership proposes that leaders should change the degree to which they are directive or supportive to meet the changing needs of followers (Northouse, 2019). As a result, there are four leadership styles: telling, selling, participating, and delegating (Mullins, 2010).

Path-Goal Theory

Path-goal theory, developed by "Robert House", is concerned mainly with how leaders affect the motivation and satisfaction of subordinates and smooth the path/way to their goals (House, 1996). It stated that the leader's basic task is to aid followers in fulfilling their aims and to supply the direction or support required to ensure that their aims are harmonious with the aims of the group (Robbins & Coulter, 2017) .

The theory indicated that for leaders to be effective/successful, they engage in practices that complement subordinates' abilities and environments in a method that compensates for deficiencies and is useful to subordinates' satisfaction and work performance (House, 1996). Thus, it suggests four different kinds of behaviour that the same person can practice in varying situations: directive, supportive, participative, and Achievement-oriented (Evans, 1996; Bans-Akutey, 2021).

2.2.3.5. Contemporary Theories

The contemporary theories of leadership indicate the most recent concepts and models in the leadership of organizations. Here will be addressed some of them, namely; Leader-member exchange, charismatic, and transactional-transformational leadership paradigm. This latter is concerning the current study's model.

Leader–member exchange (LMX) theory

Leader-member exchange theory, developed by "George Graen" and his colleagues, conceptualizes leadership as a process that is centered on the interactions between leaders and followers (Fulop & Linstead, 1999). According to this theory, a leader implicitly classifies members (followers) as an “in-group” or as an “out-group” (Erdogan & Bauer, 2015); this is based on how well they work with the leader and how well the leader works with them (Northouse, 2019). That relationship tends to remain fairly stable over time (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

The theory suggests that high-quality relationships - i.e., in-group status - are characterized by the exchange of valued resources. Leaders provide support, developmental opportunities, and other benefits to the employee, generating high organizational commitment on the part of these employees, and thus increasing employee performance (Erdogan & Bauer, 2015).

Charismatic Leadership

Origins of charisma rhetoric date back to "Max Weber" (Ly, 2020). Later in the 1970s, Robert House presented a charismatic leadership's theory with testable hypotheses that explain the capability of charismatic leaders to adapt to different situations and their efficacy in this vein (Bass & Bass, 2008; Gomes, 2014). "Charismatic leadership" has been defined as "one that inspires and gathers followers through special personality or features". Such a leader can attract followers without external force or authority. More, their inspirational features can raise new ideas that may necessitate innovation and change (Toh & Kuajien, 2019). Although the term of "charisma" itself suggests that it is a special quality that some individuals hold that lets them connect with and inspire others on a deep emotional level (Goethals et al., 2004), the majority of behavioral researchers do not see that it is an inherited or innate quality. Instead, charisma is seen to be a set of personal properties that enable an individual to have an impact on others and inspire them. On that account, charisma has been closely linked with certain types of leadership (*ibid*). Especially with growing a body of

evidence exhibits impressive associations amongst charismatic leadership patterns and high performance and followers' satisfaction (Robbins & Coulter, [2017](#)).

2.2.4. Transactional-Transformational Paradigm

More than four decades ago, "James Burns" introduced for the first time the two terms of transactional and transformational leadership, which have captured much of the researchers' attention (Bass & Riggio, [2006](#); Kidney, [2015](#)). Later, Bernard Bass and his colleagues made a great contribution to the development of these types of leadership in a more systematic manner, which offered some basic concepts and a complete framework (Si & Wei, [2012](#)). Each of these types of leadership has different ways to influence the followers' attitudes and motivation (Vito et al., [2014](#)). According to this theory, the core of transactional leadership is the deterministic exchange relation between a leader and their followers in order to suit their existing needs. In contrast, transformational leadership is engaging in an ongoing process of elevating followers both intellectually and emotionally to higher levels of motivation, satisfaction, and performance in line with their own goals (Kidney, [2015](#)). Simply put, transactional leadership represents a style that is more based on tradition and the past, while transformational leadership refers to a style that is open to the future, innovation, and change (Şirin et al., [2018](#)).

James Burns originally argued that transactional and transformational leadership styles are placed at opposite ends of a single chain of command. According to this insight, a leader can either behave in a transactional or transformational way (Avolio et al., [1999](#)). On the grounds of this, transactional leadership mostly uses conditional rewards to motivate followers, i.e., they make clear what individuals can expect in return for their compliance with certain performance criteria (Si & Wei, [2012](#)). While, on the other hand, transformational leadership relies mostly on emotional and normative approaches in order to reach and motivate followers, namely, they recognize followers' individual needs and abilities and stimulate their intellectual development (Arnold & Loughlin, [2010](#); Gill, [2011](#)). But Bass ([1985](#)) in developing his theory criticized this perspective, he viewed transactional and transformational styles of leadership as distinct complementary concepts rather than opposite ends as depicted by James. According to Bass's view, a leader rewards or punishes the follower in exchange for the latter's performance of a pre-agreed task or role, but the probability of the effectiveness of this interaction grows if the leader is transformational as well (Bass, [1997b](#)). In this sense, the two approaches are actually interdependent and complementary and both

are conducive to improved performance and organizational effectiveness (Baškarada et al., 2017; Xenikou, 2017). A leader may possess both characteristics while transactional leadership is a pre-condition for transformational leadership (Bass, 1997a), as transformational leadership basically develops from transactional leadership (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

In this regard, Bass (1985) argued that transactional leaders accept established organizational norms, values, and culture and work within these parameters to meet organizational performance management levels. In contrast, transformational leaders act as change agents who actively shape organizational norms, values, and culture by communicating their vision and goal to reach higher performance levels (Shanker & Sayeed, 2012; Mugizi et al., 2019). Indeed, transactional leaders can be conceived to maintain established performance levels and the status quo (Ebrahimi et al., 2016), while transformational leaders endeavor to bring about sustainable organizational change (Oterkiil & Ertesvag, 2014). Although these are separate constructs, they are related in that they both aspire to achieve goals but differ in the types of goals and objectives set and the processes adopted to motivate followers (Hater & Bass, 1988).

To sum up, while the strengths of a transactional leader lie in their ability to improve organizational and operational efficiency, through skills of designing structures, control systems, and reward systems, the key advantage to the transformational approach lies in their ability to mobilize abilities of others to transform the organization, reformulate problems, and introduce innovative solutions. In this sense, these two effective approaches to leadership are complementary and appropriate for achieving organizational objectives depending on the situation (Daft, 2008; Lussier & Achua, 2016; Kriger & Zhovtobryukh, 2016).

In conclusion, in the quest for the development of this theory, Bass and Avolio (1994) introduced "The Full Range Leadership Model", which grew out of Bass' (1985) multifactor model of transactional and transformational leadership. The model includes three transactional dimensions, five transformational dimensions, and one non-leadership dimension (laissez-faire leadership's behaviour). These dimensions are addressed one by one in some detail through the next subsections.

2.2.4.1. Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership refers to the bulk of leadership models, which focus on the social exchanges or transactions that occur between leaders and their followers (Bass, 1985;

Northouse, 2019). It is defined as leadership that motivates followers by exchanging rewards for high performance and reprimanding followers for mistakes and substandard performance (Druskat, 1994; Bertocci, 2009). Such transactions or exchanges allows leaders to establish performance objectives, monitor and control the results, carry out tasks according to specific contractual arrangements, in addition to, motivate the followers with both reward and punishments, and a reduction in resistance to particular actions (Bass & Avolio, 2000; Lussier & Achua, 2016). It is concerned with ways to manage the status quo and maintain the day-to-day operations, i.e., let things remain the way they are (Khan et al., 2016), with greater attention to improving operational or organizational efficiency (Daft, 2008; Ebrahimi et al., 2016). Therefore, it has been suggested that transactional leadership is more suitable in stable organizations or during times of economic stability (Bass, 1985; Druskat, 1994).

Transactional leaders focus on the current or short-term physical needs of followers within the context of the economic exchange model (Dvir et al., 2002; Şirin et al., 2018). Consequently, effective leaders of this style are able to recognize and reward followers' accomplishments in a timely way (Aarons, 2006). Nonetheless, transactional leaders' subordinates are not necessarily anticipated to think innovatively and may be subject to supervision according to pre-established criteria (Jung, 2001). Inferior transactional leaders may be less probably to predict troubles and intervene before those troubles come to the fore, while more effective leaders of this type act appropriately and at the right time (Aarons, 2006).

Generally, transactional leadership takes place when the leader rewards or disciplines the follower, relying on the adequacy of the follower's performance. According to Bass and Riggio (2006), "transactional leadership" depends on contingent reinforcement, either positive contingent reward or the more negative active or passive forms of management-by-exception. In the following paragraphs, these components (or dimensions) are dealt with in some explanation.

(a) Contingent reward: refers to the fulfillment of contractual obligations' benefits (physical or psychological) to motivate subordinates once they meet the necessary standards (Harrison, 2018). It involves clarifying work roles and task demands, and rewarding desired outcomes depending upon performance expectations (Xenikou, 2017; Carter et al., 2018). Bass and Avolio (1993) pointed out that this dimension is a more constructive and positive transaction comprising directed, consultative, negotiated, or consultative conventions between leader and followers on goals or task requirements. The leader promises or provides

suitable rewards and recognition if followers achieve the objectives or execute the tasks as required (Bass & Bass, 2008). The remuneration may be taken in the form of awards in recognition of achievements, recommendations for increases in pay and promotion, or commendation for outstanding efforts (Chan & Chan, 2005).

As claimed by Bass (1985), this dimension theoretically is deeply taken root in the notion of the House's path-goal theory, which is originally based on contingent rewards. Perhaps this interprets why this dimension is seen as an effective way of leadership in terms of getting high performance and positive work attitudes (Xenikou, 2017). The amount of direction that followers require, as posited by the path-goal theory will depend on situational factors (Bans-Akutey, 2021). Also, a similarity exists between this construct and initiating structure or task orientation, on which House's theory is based. For example, followers may need to increase sales to get better salaries, lower costs to get bigger bonuses, or increase the workload to obtain promotions. Generally, the transactional leader uses path-goal concept as a frame-work, but the leader will also adjust the goals, directions, and missions of the organization in order to achieve effectiveness or enhance performance.

(b) Management-by-exception active (MBE-A): (i.e., active corrective transactions) this style refers to arrangements to actively monitor deviances from standards, mistakes, and errors in the follower's missions and to take corrective action where necessary (Bass & Riggio, 2006). In other words, leaders here monitor followers closely for errors or applicable regulations violations and then take corrective action proactively (Northouse, 2019). Bass connoted that Leaders who manage by exception-actively not only concentrate on mistakes but help followers in handling such mistakes or failures (Bass & Bass, 2008). They keep reminding them of their failures in order to reinforce them to achieve a specific standard. Therefore, this aspect of the transactional leadership style would motivate (or compel) the followers to perform as they would, in a case where they are exposed to a reward (Raziq et al., 2018). These leaders also make adjustments to their actions according to situations, thus taking corrective action that may be negative at times, but the approach is effective in the long-term (Hasija et al., 2019).

According to Gitoho et al. (2016), management-by-exception active can be supported by processes such as performance management using key performance indicators and monitoring performance regularly, giving clear instructions on what is expected on the job

using a detailed job description, holding meetings with employees, assigning projects with guided supervision, etc.

(c) Management-by-exception passive (MBE-P): this style implies that leaders are waiting passively for deviances, errors, and mistakes to occur and then taking corrective action (Bass & Riggio, 2006). That is, requires intervening only if problems have arisen or predetermined standards are not met (Agard, 2011; Northouse, 2019). Thus, leaders here confront their followers with their mistakes and express their disapproval of the mistakes that were made (Breevaart et al., 2013). According to Bass & Riggio (2006), managing-by-exception is most likely to occur when leaders have a large span of control, and the corrective action may be negative feedback, reproof, disapproval, or disciplinary action (Bass & Bass, 2008), for example, a supervisor who gives an employee a poor performance evaluation without ever talking with the employee about their prior work performance (Northouse, 2019). Like these leaders ask no more than what is essential to get the work done (Hater & Bass, 1988). As such, this style of leadership can be explained through the popular phrase: "If it ain't broke, don't fix it" (Bass, 1997b) .

Although managing-by-exception is ineffective when it is supervision that passively waits for mistakes to occur before dealing with the problem (Bass & Riggio, 2006), leaders, as mentioned earlier, must sometimes practice this style when required to supervise a large number of subordinates especially with those who report directly to the leaders (Bass, 1997a).

2.2.4.2. Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership refers to leadership that stimulates and inspires (i.e, transforms) followers to achieve extraordinary outcomes (Robbins & Coulter, 2017). Transformational leaders are known for moving and changing organizations, by communicating to followers an inspiring vision of the future and, like charismatic leaders, tapping into followers' higher ideals and desire for change (Lussier & Achua, 2016). According to Bass' theory, the strongest effect of leaders on followers occurs as a consequence of leadership that is transformational rather than quid pro quo or transactional forms grounded on the use of rewards and sanctions (Arthur et al., 2017). Through these effects, leaders and followers raise one another's levels of morality and motivation (Earley & Erez, 1997), and leaders, therefore, achieve followers' best efforts by inspiring them to go beyond their self-interests in order to meet organizational goals or objectives (Harrison, 2018). In this

meaning, Earley and Erez (1997) stated that transformational leaders help to change followers fundamentally. That is, they mobilize followers to make fundamental changes and reach idealized performance peaks (Moradi & Shahbazi, 2016).

Notably, a fundamental aspect of transformational leadership is its assertion on followers' development (Harrison, 2018), as transformational leadership elevates the concerns of followers from lower-level needs (such as for safety and security) to higher-level needs (such as for self-esteem and self-actualization) (Daft, 2008). Shifting followers to this higher level of development is essential to the operation of effective teams and to get better the overall effectiveness of organizational systems and culture (Bass & Bass, 2008).

Although several studies suggest that eminent leaders display both transformational and transactional styles (Yukl, 2013; Oterkiil & Ertesvag, 2014), it seems that transformational leadership can be more effective than transactional leadership in most cases (Dvir et al., 2002; Yavirach, 2012; Xenikou, 2017; Northouse, 2019). Further, transformational leadership has been positively correlated with how effective the leader is perceived by subordinates, how much effort subordinates say they will expend for the leader, how satisfied the subordinates are with the leader, and how well subordinates performed as rated by the leader. In the same studies, transactional leadership (Contingent Reward and Management-by-Exception) was also positively correlated with these outcomes, but, in general, the relationships were considerably lower than those found for transformational leadership (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

In their discussion of the theory, Bass and Avolio (1995) depicted transformational leadership that having four dimensions, namely; individualized consideration, inspiration motivation, intellectual stimulation, and idealized influence. The following paragraphs describe each dimension separately.

(a) Individualized consideration: indicates the degree to which a leader builds close relationships with employees and attends to followers' needs and differences, acts as a coach to the followers, and listens to their concerns and ideas (Kirkbride, 2006; Gomes, 2014). According to Hickman (2010), the element of transformational leadership that usually best distinguishes authentic from inauthentic leaders is individualized consideration, as followers are treated as ends not just means (*ibid*). The leader's behavior establishes the recognition of individual differences (Bass & Riggio, 2006), where individualized consideration recognizes differences among people in their strengths and weaknesses, likes and dislikes (Kirkbride,

2006). Accordingly, the behavior of a leader exhibits acceptance of these differences. For instance, some subordinates draw more encouragement, others more autonomy, and some others firmer standards, etc. (Bass & Riggio, 2006). These leaders may use delegation as a means to help followers grow through personal challenges (Northouse, 2019). New opportunities for learning and development of followers are created via delegating tasks and encouraging two-way communication (Bass, 1997b). In addition, a leader considers each individual's needs for growth and achievement by assuming the role of teacher, coach, mentor, and counselor (Arenas et al., 2017). Further, creating new learning opportunities along with a supportive climate for learning is critical for such leaders (Avolio & Bass, 1995).

(b) Inspirational motivation: indicates the degree to which leaders hold the ability to passionately communicate a future idealistic vision that is a much better alternative to the status quo (Lussier & Achua, 2016). In the opinion of Bass (1990), Leaders inspire through providing meaning and challenge for their followers using simple language, symbols, and images. They inspire followers to willingly accept challenging goals or visions of the future mission and objectives of the organization (Lai et al., 2020). The alignment of individual needs with the needs of an organization is a fundamental strategy of inspirational motivation (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Leaders attempt to nurture the spirit of teamwork and commitment by clarifying the vision and strategic goal of the organization and creating a strong feeling of determination among the followers (Ngaihe et al., 2016).

Banjeri and Krishnan (2000) linked inspirational motivation with ethical conceptions, purporting that when leader demonstrates caring about organizational vision and followers' motivation, they are more inclined to make ethical decisions. In this context, Kehinde and Banjo (2014) pointed out that this transformational leadership behavior would produce effective outcomes in organizations as it motivates followers to go beyond normal expectations, and resorts to meeting followers' higher needs and moral values.

Despite, the similarities between this dimension with the charismatic dimension of leadership, Bass (1990) signaled that there is main difference lies in the way followers accept and agree with the leader's initiatives. That is, if followers are drawn to the objectives and intentions of the leader but not to the leader himself, as such; the leader is inspiring but not charismatic (*ibid*). However, both leadership types employ compelling visionary explanations to depict what the work group can accomplish and what it will mean to them. Followers are then motivated and inspired to achieve challenging goals (Lussier & Achua, 2016).

(c) Intellectual stimulation: is about innovation and creativity in the way of solving problems they induce followers to find innovative solutions and to challenge their own beliefs and values as well as those of the leader and the organization (Northouse, 2019). According to Bass and Riggio (2006), transformational leaders stimulate the followers' efforts to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching old situations in new ways. New ideas and creativity are rewarded, and failure due to new approaches is not punished (Harrison, 2018), also followers are not criticized for taking risks or disagreeing with management (Arenas et al., 2017). Furthermore, the leaders provide their followers with challenging new ideas, and continually encourage them to break away from traditional thinking methods that may be ill-suited to current troubles (Park et al., 2016). For instance, a factory manager who constantly promotes the individual efforts of workers to evolve unique methods to solve troubles that have reasoned blockages or slowdowns in production processes (Northouse, 2019).

To conclude, Bass and Bass (2008) view that intellectual stimulation is much more than a matter of broadcasting good ideas, as intellectually stimulating leaders consider themselves as part of an interactive creative process. Not bound by current solutions, but rather create images of other possibilities, which ultimately lead to the development of a sustainable competitive advantage (Bass & Bass, 2008; Yasin et al., 2014).

(d) Idealized influence (or charisma): It describes leaders who are viewed as role models by their followers (Gomes, 2014). They are deeply respected by followers, who identify with them and usually place a great deal of trust in them (Bass & Riggio, 2006). This type of leaders engages in behavior that infuses followers with a strong sense of idealism and pride (Lussier & Achua, 2016). Because of the leaders' positive attributes (e. g. perceived power, focusing on higher-order ideals and values), followers build close emotional ties to the leader. Those ties, in fact, represent the emotional dimension of leadership (Northouse, 2019).

According to Bass and Riggio (2006), there are two aspects to idealized influence: the leader's behaviors and the elements that are attributed to the leader by followers and other associates. The first aspect is typically called "Attributed influence", whereas the second is known as "Behavior influence". These two aspects represent the interactional nature of idealized influence (ibid). Consequently, Leaders who are perceived as powerful, charismatic,

and confident individuals by their followers can be categorized as possessing attributed idealized influence (Afshari, 2021).

In this respect, Bass (1985) outlined those leaders adopting idealized influence behavior, whether it is behavioral or attributed, appeal to followers' sense of purpose by articulating compelling visions for the organization and portraying organizational values to followers. Value congruence, on the flip side, leads to the development of followers' commitment toward group or organization, and consequently, they exert themselves toward fulfilling organizational objectives (Afshari, 2021).

In conclusion, even though Bass (1985) argued that the idealized influence or charismatic dimension is the most general and important behavior of transformational leadership, it is not the only dimension that determines whether an individual can be a successful leader or not. Therefore, the way the leader combines charisma with other transformational leadership dimensions (inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) determines, to a great extent, the leader's success and subsequently the organization's success. In addition to the important transactional role of leadership that should not be ignored (Kets, 2001; Mullins, 2010; Winzenried et al., 2010). Bass believes that the styles are not discordant, as the manager may practice both of these leadership behaviors, and that the use of either is a situational matter by showing different amounts in either or both styles concurrently, which often results in more positive work outcomes (Oterkiil & Ertesvag, 2014; Xenikou, 2017).

2.2.4.3. Laissez-faire Leadership

Laissez-faire leadership represents a type of behavior in which leaders display a passive indifference towards the task and followers (Yukl, 2013). As opposed to transactional leadership, laissez-faire represents a non-transaction (Bass & Riggio, 2006). According to Bass (1997b), such leaders are mostly inactive, avoid making decisions, abdicate responsibilities, and are absent when needed. Moreover, laissez-faire leaders do not provide continuous feedback for their followers; which is regarded as an essential element of successful work (Al-Malki & Juan, 2018). They also tend to disregard needs of followers, mainly because they do not grapple with the work-related troubles (Yukl, 2013). Such leaders do not take sides in conflicts and lack organization in handling work priorities (Bass & Bass, 2008). Such leadership behavior may be acceptable only when the followers are experts in

their field (Al-Malki & Juan, 2018), or in situations where subordinates have a high level of competence and ability (Lundmark et al., 2021).

In effect, this type of leadership represents one of two forms of leadership behaviors that are collectively known as passive leadership- i.e., laissez-faire and passive management-by-exceptions (Harold & Holtz, 2015; Adeel et al., 2018). But, the laissez-faire style as the most extreme passivity of leaders can still have detrimental effects on followers and the organization in general (Bergen & Bressler, 2014). For instance, laissez-faire leadership has been found to be connected with lower employees' job satisfaction, leaders effectiveness, and work performance (Goethals et al., 2004; Robbins & Judge, 2013). As such, several researchers behold that the negative impacts of laissez-faire leadership rival the positive impact of effective leadership behavior (e.g., transactional and transformational) (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Harold & Holtz, 2015).

According to Bass and Riggio (2006), the meta-analytic findings suggest a hierarchy of leadership styles, with the components of "transformational leadership" at the top, followed by "contingent reward", then active and "passive management-by-exception", respectively, finally "laissez-faire leadership" come at the bottom as a style generally proving to be ineffective. This is probably the base reason why many researchers have set aside the laissez-faire style from their investigations (Sušanj & Jakopec, 2012).

In the end, it should be noted that laissez-faire leadership (or passive leadership generally) should not be confused with empowering leadership. As per Bass and Bass (2008), unlike a laissez-faire leader, an empowering leader sets boundaries within which followers are given the discretion to act as they think best. The empowering leader follows up with resources, support, and caring, and remains concerned to see if the role has been enacted or the task has been successfully completed (*ibid*). While, on the other hand, "laissez-faire leadership", as mentioned earlier, represents a passive leadership style that abdicates legitimate responsibilities and neglects workplace problems (Yukl, 2013). By and large, according to Bass and Riggio (2006), laissez-faire is de facto the avoidance or absence of leadership and is, by definition, most inactive, as well as most ineffective according to almost all research on this style (Gomes, 2014). Therefore, Avolio et al. (1999) earlier pointed out that style of laissez-faire leadership ought to be treated as separate from the other dimensions of transactional and transformational leadership styles. This is actually what has been adopted in the present study, as the two transactional and transformational leadership styles

were only included (in harmony with the aim of the study), whereas the laissez-faire style was ruled out from the study model designed to investigate the influence of leadership styles on employee's work outcomes in the Libyan context.

2.3. Employee's Work Outcomes

The term of employee's work outcomes refers to individuals' affective reactions tied to work-related attitudes (Ambula et al., 2016). In his model to investigate the correlation between human resource management (HRM) practices and organizational performance, Guest (1997) suggested three main levels that represent the nature of human resource management results, namely: financial outcomes (market share, profits, net margin), organizational outcomes (quality, productivity, efficiency, client satisfaction), and employee outcomes (employees' attitudes and behaviour, such as job satisfaction, turnover intention, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship's behaviors, organizational identification, and perceived organizational justice). As Guest stated, the distinctive feature of human resource management is its assumption that improved performance is achieved through the individuals with higher outcomes in the organization.

The present quantitative study attempts to focus on a pair of employee's work outcomes, namely; Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as dependent variables. According to Spector (2012), these outcomes are the most important elements that mirror how employees feel about their work and the institution to which they belong. Armstrong and Taylor (2014) clued that job satisfaction and organizational commitment largely constitute the mechanism by which HRM practitioners influence individual and institutional performance. Besides, these variables are typically viewed as immediate outcomes of any leadership style in business organizations whether industrial or service (Ambula et al., 2016).

2.3.1. Job Satisfaction

The notion of job satisfaction is one of the instrumental issues in both private and public sectors where most institutions are concerned over its effect on the organization's overall performance (Suki & Suki, 2011). According to Lee et al. (2017), this term is first introduced in the mid-1930s by "Hoppock" who defines it as the psychological and physiological aspects of employees' satisfaction with job environmental factors, those interrelated aspects that demonstrate how satisfied an employee is with their work or job. To put it simply, it is an employee's affective reactions toward a job or working environment (Fields, 2002). Such

reactions are emotional in nature and come out from the job experience of the employee (Malik et al., 2010). In assent with this, "Edwin Locke" indicated earlier that the pleasurable emotional state arising from the evaluation of one's job or job experiences is called job satisfaction (Locke, 2003). Spector (2012) recapped it as "an extent to which employee likes their work or job; job dissatisfaction is the extent to which they dislike them".

Job satisfaction or dissatisfaction is actually a function of the perceived relationship amongst what an employee anticipates and acquires from their work or job and how much instrumental or value one attributes to it (George & K.A., 2018). That is, when an employee values a certain facet of a job, their satisfaction is greatly impacted positively when anticipations are met and are negatively impacted when anticipations are not met compared to an employee who does not value that facet (ibid). When employees are satisfied; they become more faithful to the organization and productive (Yang & Islam, 2012), and these employees' satisfaction can greatly influence the satisfaction of customers and the productivity of the organization (Swe & Lu, 2019). In turn, when employees are not satisfied, they probably incline to shift and look for satisfaction elsewhere.

As a matter of fact, organizations need to ensure that their individuals are satisfied if they want to survive and be sustainable (Girma, 2016). Consequently, the leaders naturally need to guarantee this satisfaction as well, where there is a close relationship between these standpoints as will be seen later in this chapter. Job satisfaction of employees means a work-force that is motivated and committed to good work performance (Arnold & Randall, 2016). Pongton and Suntrayuth (2019) mentioned that employee satisfaction affects employee commitment toward the organization and influences employee performance and task success; it is also highly correlated to the success of the organization generally. Furthermore, Job. satisfaction can be an important predictor of many other important behaviors and outcomes for employees that have implications for organizational and personal well-being (Spector, 2012), such as behaviors of organizational citizenship, absenteeism, turnover, and employee relations (Fields, 2002; Robbins & Judge, 2013). Besides, the employees' role in the work-place is emphasized as there is an effect of different elements on an employee within the organization (Padmanabhan, 2021). For this reason, research is continually being done on various aspects of the job such as; work, salary, supervision, promotion, co-workers, and demographic influences on overall employee satisfaction (Rehman et al., 2013). In follow-up, Fields (2002) referenced that "job satisfaction" is seen as a multi-dimensional construct that includes employee feelings about a variety of both intrinsic and extrinsic job

elements. It is usually linked with motivation and also may be coupled with a personal feeling of achievement, either quantitative or qualitative (Mullins, 2010).

2.3.1.1. Dimensions of Job Satisfaction

A wide review of the literature specifies that job satisfaction has multiple and interrelated dimensions and sides, influenced by unlike factors; some are linked to the work itself, while others are connected to the peer workgroup and surrounding work environment. Thus, it is erroneous to believe that increased satisfaction in one aspect of job results in satisfaction with other dimensions (Scandura, 2019); as every dimension has its own importance which cannot be neglected (Malik et al., 2010). These dimensions were worded for decades and have been widely hired to measure employees' job satisfaction over the years. Luthans (2011) spoke briefly of these dimensions as follows:

- a) The work itself: exhibits the extent to which the job provides the employee with interesting tasks, opportunities for learning, and the chance to accept responsibility.
- b) Pay (Salary/Honorarium): manifests the amount of financial recompense that is drawn and the degree to which this is seen as fair vis-à-vis that of other individuals in the organization.
- c) Promotion chances: refers to the degree to which employees feel satisfied with their prospect for progress in the organization.
- d) Supervision: relates to the extent to which employee feels the supervisor's capabilities to present technical help and behavioral backup.
- e) Co-workers: marks the degree to which fellow workers are technically proficient and socially supportive.

Therefore, it is generally accepted that the measurement of job satisfaction requires evaluating all the job's aspects because it provides a more complete picture of an employee's job satisfaction and also allows the employee themselves to have various feelings on various aspects of the job (Ngodo, 2008).

2.3.1.2. Overview of Theories Explaining Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction theories as Mullins (2010) indicated have a strong interlock with theories illustrating human motivation. These theories help managers in identifying, interpreting, and predicting the causes of individuals' satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their work, and then try to control those factors in a way that serves the goals of the group or

organization. Therefore, any discussion of job satisfaction will be incomplete and inadequate if a glance at the contributions of the paramount theorists is not made (Thiagaraj & Thangaswamy, 2017). Generally, the prominent and dominant theories in this field fall into two categories, namely: content theories and process theories (Mullins, 2010; Schermerhorn et al., 2010; French et al., 2015). Below some of these theories are briefly reviewed.

2.3.1.2.1. Content Theories

These theories center on the content of motivation in the shape of needs. Content theories generally refer, as the term implies, to the components of motivation however it does not explain how motivation affects performance (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). Broadly speaking, those theories include; Needs' Hierarchy Theory, ERG Theory, Two-Factor Theory, and Three-Needs Theory (Mullins, 2010; French et al., 2015).

In the needs' hierarchy theory, devised by "Abraham Maslow", individuals move up the hierarchy of five needs (physiological, safety, social, esteem, and self-actualization) as needs are substantially satisfied. A need that is substantially satisfied is no longer motivating (Robbins & Coulter, 2017). Using this classification Maslow reasons that as a person moves up in life his need changes and if one is unable to access needs appropriate to him, they will basically be dissatisfied (Thiagaraj & Thangaswamy, 2017).

Although this hierarchy was developed to interpret human motivation on the whole, its key tenants apply to the work's setting and have been utilized to explicate job satisfaction of individuals within an organization (Hassard et al., n.d.). Indeed, the theory introduces a considerable contribution in terms of making management knowledgeable of the various needs of individuals in the workplace (Luthans, 2011) and it provides organizations to motivate their employees in the viewpoint that the motivated employees are expected to be more satisfied. Thanks to the fundamental approach of this theory, an organization offers different incentives to workers in order to fulfill their needs and to progress up the hierarchy.

The ERG theory developed by "Clayton Alderfer" proposed a modification of "Maslow's theory" in an effort to simplify it and respond to criticisms against it. The theory has identified human needs into three classifications in a hierarchical form beginning with "Existence Needs", they are similar to the physiological and safety needs suggested by "Maslow". Next, "Related Needs", these needs are similar to social and esteem needs to be enunciated by "Maslow". Finally, at the top of the hierarchy is what Alderfer termed "Growth

Needs"; they are similar to Maslow's self-actualization needs (Daft & Marcic, 2009), which is the drive to meet one's fullest capacity (Scandura, 2019).

According to ERG theory, all three needs may operate simultaneously (Schermerhorn et al., 2010). The theory propounded a new dimension known as "frustration regression". Accordingly, a failure to satisfy a high level of need increases one's motivation to meet lower-level needs (Turabik & Baskan, 2015). Thus, increase satisfaction will increase progression and regression will lead to frustration (Mohammed, 2018).

In the Two-Factor Theory (or Hygiene-Motivation Theory), "Frederick Herzberg" and his colleagues argued that there are two factors that contribute to the state of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. They are called "motivator factors" and "hygiene factors" that an organization can adjust to influence motivation in the work-place (Luthans, 2011). The theory rounded off that "job dissatisfaction" occurs in the absence of the "hygiene factors" but the existence of such factors alone does not provide "job satisfaction" and motivated, only with the existence of motivational factors the job satisfaction accompanied by motivation can be obtained (Turabik & Baskan, 2015).

Motivator factors, including personal achievement, recognition, the world itself, responsibility, growth, promotion, and opportunity for advancement, are described as "intrinsic factors" (Ramlall, 2004). They tend to be intangible and deal with more emotional needs. On the contrary, hygiene factors, for instance, interpersonal relationships, organization policies, conditions of work, quality of supervision, job security, salary, and other benefits, are characterized as "extrinsic factors" (ibid). They are tangible and classified as basic needs since it refers to doing something for external rewards. Herzberg also believes that in a similar manner to Maslow's ideas; employees can be motivated by meeting their high-level needs only after meeting their lower-level needs adequately (Turabik & Baskan, 2015).

Based on these results, Herzberg argued that for an employee to be truly motivated, managers must focus on motivator factors by making basic changes in the nature of an employee's job, that is, through "job enrichment" to increase the opportunities of the employee for achievement, recognition, responsibility, and growth (Herzberg & Mausner, 2017).

The Three-Needs Theory (or Achievement Theory) proposed by "David McClelland" and associates, states that people have three types of emotional needs, namely, achievement (getting things done), power (having influence over others), and affiliation (having good

relationships) (Ramlall, 2004; Saif et al., 2012). These needs correspond, roughly, to Maslow's self-actualization, esteem, and love needs (Mullins, 2010). According to the theory, individuals can have any mix of these needs. Their motivations and behaviors are shaped by the strength and combination of their own needs. It also tends to vary between different occupations (ibid).

The need for achievement is the one most often considered in work contexts (Arnold & Randall, 2016), and is defined as a desire to accomplish something difficult (Ramlall, 2004). McClelland and his associates, therefore, focused most of their attention on the need for achievement in particular (Robbins & Judge, 2013). They proposed that high achievers are more probably to be successful entrepreneurs (Scandura, 2019), and also argued that a nation's economic prosperity depends partly on the level of need for achievement in its population (Arnold & Randall, 2016).

Because each need can be linked with a set of work preferences, McClelland encouraged managers to learn how to identify the presence of the three needs in themselves and in others. One with a higher need for achievement would prefer personal responsibilities and challenging goals. One with a higher need for affiliation often draws to interpersonal relations and communication opportunities. Whereas one with a higher need for power pursues to influence other people and prefers attention and recognition (Newstrom, 2007; Schermerhorn et al., 2010).

2.3.1.2.2. Process Theories

Process theories focus on the "how" of motivation. Instead of focusing on what people need, that is, focusing on the psychological and behavioral processes that humans follow. So, by understanding these processes it is potential to understand the actions, interactions, and contexts that motivate individuals' behaviors (Mullins, 2010). These theories include expectancy theory, equity theory, goal-setting theory, and attribution theory (ibid).

Expectancy theory developed by "Victor Vroom" and expanded later by "Porter and Lawler" and others, claims that the motivational force that drives behavior is a product of three factors: valence, expectancy, and instrumentality (Newstrom, 2007). Vroom posits that those factors are related to one another by this equation (Schermerhorn et al., 2010): Valence x Expectancy x Instrumentality = Motivation.

Vroom used the term "valence" to define the anticipated satisfaction from an outcome (or how much one wants as a reward). "Expectancy" can be viewed as the perceived likelihood that the desired outcome would happen if sufficient effort was put into achieving it. While the "instrumentality" term marks the belief that generating good results will drive the sought reward (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014).

Vroom recognizes the importance of various individual needs and motivations (Wehrich et al., 2013). According to him, human motivation is affected by expected rewards and costs (Daft & Marcic, 2009). An employee is possibly motivated to work toward a particular objective if it is perceived that a personal need will be satisfied (Wehrich et al., 2013). The theory, therefore, helps explain why a lot of employees are not motivated in their work and do only the minimum necessary to get by (Robbins & Judge, 2013), making this model the most exhaustive explanation of motivation and job satisfaction despite the criticism that has faced (Robbins & Coulter, 2017).

To short, the expectancy theory of motivation requires the fulfillment of the following conditions: employees are motivated to work performance only when they believe that effort will give rise to performance, performance will drive outcomes, and the outcomes will lead to satisfaction (Haque et al., 2014).

Equity theory, coined by "J. Stacy Adams", related motivation to perception (Kovach, 2018). Originally, it evolved from social comparison theory (Schermerhorn et al., 2010). It proposes that employees compare what they get from a job (outputs) in relation to what they put into it (inputs), and then they compare their inputs–outputs ratio with the inputs–outputs ratios of relevant others (Robbins & Coulter, 2017). To get a fair balance (equity), the ratio of inputs and outputs must be equal (Govindaraju, 2018). Otherwise, it creates a negative state of tension (inequity) and provides the motivation to do something to correct it, which may reach the degree of leaving the organization (Robbins & Judge, 2013).

Outputs are the rewards or everything of personal value that an employee gets from working for an organization, including pay, fringe benefits, good treatment, enjoyment, and status. Inputs are the contributions made by the individual to the organization. They involve not only the work that the individual fulfills but the talents and experience that they bring to the work-place as well. Thus, an employee with many years of job experience would have greater input than an employee just starting out in a career (Spector, 2012).

Simply put, the equity theory claims that a prime input into employees' job performance and satisfaction is the degree of inequity (or equity) that individuals perceive in their work status (Luthans, 2011). Hence, it is important to give thought to the theory's factors when striving to improve an employee's job satisfaction, and motivation level, and what can be done to promote higher levels of each (Govindaraju, 2018).

Goal-setting theory as developed by "Edwin Locke" and "Gary Latham" states that individuals will perform better if they have difficult, specific, accepted performance goals or objectives (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). Goals are targets and objectives for future performance (Newstrom, 2007). According to the theory, these goals can provide a directional nature to people's behavior and guide their thoughts and actions to one outcome rather than another (Luthans, 2011).

About the importance of goal and goal setting, Locke and Latham pointed out that purposeful activity is the essence of living action (Schermerhorn et al., 2010). They also stressed the importance of feedback, where employees do better when they get feedback on how well they are progressing toward their goals. Because it assists to pinpoint discrepancies between what they have done and what they want to do (Robbins & Judge, 2013).

In sum, the theory underlines the critical relationship between objectives and performance, and it appears that more effective performance results achieve when objectives are specific and challenging - when they are utilized to assess performance and tied up to feedback on outcomes and to bring acceptance and commitment (Lunenburg, 2011).

Reinforcement theory as presented by "B. F. Skinner" posits that behavior is a function of its consequences (Newstrom, 2007). Those consequences that immediately follow a behavior and increase the probability that the behavior will be repeated are called reinforcers (Robbins & Coulter, 2017). That is, it interprets the process of shaping behavior by controlling the consequences of the behavior; therefore, managers can control, or at least affect, a number of employee behaviors by manipulating their consequences (Newstrom, 2007). The theory proposes that it can change someone's behaviour by hiring reinforcement, punishment, and extinction. Rewards are used to reinforce the wanted behaviour and punishments are used to prevent the unwanted behaviour. Extinction is an instrument to stop somebody from performing a learned behaviour. The technical term for these processes is called "operant conditioning" (Amutan, 2014). The term suggests that people behave in ways

they expect will produce positive outcomes. Thus, it is linked to expectancy theory and also contributes to learning theory (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014).

The theory's advantage is that it places a greater degree of control, and responsibility, in the hands of the manager (Newstrom, 2007). Thus, it is important for a manager to select the appropriate type of 'operant conditioning' to ensure getting the desired results and to avoid conflict. of course, this will count on a number of factors comprising the behaviour the manager wants to encourage/discourage, the organizational culture, personal management style, and the circumstances under which the behaviour is being displayed.

In the end, over reviewing all these significant theoretical contributions to the motivation processes in the work-place, it can be clearly concluded that there is no single theory from those contributions that can be completely relied upon in the process of motivating individuals, as none of them alone provides a complete explanation. However, understanding these theories plays an important role in improving employee performance. Thus, leaders/managers must have a thorough understanding of motivation theories, and the combination of them is used and applied effectively according to the situation. This enhances not only employee performance but also overall organizational performance which can only be achieved through satisfied and happy employees.

2.3.2. Organizational Commitment

The second type of employee's work outcomes that are included in this study is "organizational commitment", which is another popular attitudinal variable in the work-place (Mowday et al., 1982; Spector, 2012). It is strongly related to job satisfaction (Luthans, 2011; Spector, 2012), but it is distinctly different in focusing on the attachment of the individual to the organization rather than on whether an individual likes or dislikes the job (Spector, 2012). It represents the degree to which one ties up with their organization (Newstrom, 2007; Fu & Deshpande, 2013). Fields (2002) describes it as a strong sense of acceptance of the organization's values and objectives, a willingness to spend considerable effort serving the organization, and a strong desire to maintain membership in an organization. According to Porter et al. (1976), individuals consider the extent to which their own values and objectives relate to that of their institution as a piece of organizational commitment, therefore commitment is deemed to be the linkage between the employees and the organization to which they belong. Meyer (2016) points out further that organizational commitment is a psychic state that characterizes organizational members' relationship with their organization

and has implications for the resolution to continue or discontinue membership in the organization. This general depiction of organizational commitment relates to the definition introduced earlier by Porter et al. (1974) and Mowday et al. (1982), which is “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in an organization”. That is, it is preoccupied with feelings of connexion to the organization's values and objectives, the employee's role in connection with this (Guest, 1987), and whether an employee will continue with the organization for a longer period of time and work passionately towards achieving the organization’s goals (Vizano et al., 2020).

Based on those definitions, it can be observed that organizational commitment stresses attachment to the organization, including its values and goals. Thus, a high level of organizational commitment is characterized by three factors namely; 1) Having a strong belief in organization’s objectives and values 2) Having a tendency towards strong effort for the organization, and 3) Having a strong tendency to continue membership in the organization (Porter et al., 1974; Arnold & Randall, 2016). Vizano et al. (2020) found that organizational commitment is an attitude approach that focusses on the way in which individuals think about their relationship with the organization via aligning their vision, mission, and goals with the organization. In this sense, Vakola and Nikolaou (2005) argued that when individuals enter the organization, they expect to have what they need and when the organization provides their employees with their needs they will be committed to the organization. Thus, commitment is the employees' attitude in the organization and it can be defined and measured in several different manners (Akram et al., 2017).

Research work indicates that individuals and teams that are committed to the values and goals of an organization have higher morale, higher job satisfaction, lower turnover, lower absenteeism, and increased productivity (Guest, 1987; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Fornes & Rocco, 2004; Luthans, 2011). In addition, such employees are typically less probably to engage in organizational deviance (e.g., overly long breaks, intentionally poor work quality) and interpersonal deviance (e.g., gossiping about peers, and making fun of others) (Scandura, 2019). In contrast, most organizations believe that as an organization’s commitment to employees has decreased, there is an expectation that employee’s commitment to the organization has decreased, too (Kashefi et al., 2013); which may negatively affect the organizational performance. Indeed, both individuals and organizations benefit from employees’ organizational commitment (Al-Zefeiti & Mohamad, 2017). That is, commi-

tment represents the exchange relationship that develops between employees and the organization over time (Mowday et al., 1982).

Furthermore, employees with higher scores of commitment are anticipated to be more motivated and perform at the highest performance levels (Al-Zefeiti & Mohamad, 2017). Those committed employees may also be more potential to engage in "extra-role" behaviors, such as creativeness or innovativeness, which are often what keep an organization competitive (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Therefore, many see organizational commitment as one of the factors that distinguish organizations with the best performance from ones with average-performance (Fornes & Rocco, 2004).

2.3.2.1. Dimensions of Organizational Commitment

Much empirical research has tended to define organizational commitment's dimensions and determine the nature of its impact on organizational and behavioral variables. In this respect, most scholars have seen that there are three dimensions of organizational commitment in different organizations, namely; affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Naturally, each dimension is closely related to an appropriate psychological state (Meyer, 2016). Therefore, Meyer and Allen (1997) suggest that when examining organizational commitment, it should take into account analyzing it within its three dimensions, not only in its entirety, so as to avoid ignoring any contradiction in employees' relationships with their superiors and organizations (Porter, 2015). These dimensions are addressed in some detail in the following sections.

2.3.2.1.1. Affective Commitment

Affective commitment indicates the desire of an employee to stay a member of an organization because of their emotional attachment and engagement with that organization (Colquitt et al., 2019) Grego-Planer (2020) believes that it depends on the employee's personal choice. Importantly, strong affective commitment means working of own will, not coercion Grego-Planer (2019). In the sense that an employee stays in the organization due to their desire to do so (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Many believe that the employee's firm conviction in the organization's values and ideals, a willingness to work on its behalf, and a desire to stay with it are considered the critical elements of emotional commitment (Ibrahim et al., 2022). In this respect, Meyer and Allen's model illustrates that an employee's affective commitment can be influenced by several factors, the most important of which are:

prevailing leadership practices, direct clarity of goals and a degree of manageable difficulty in reaching goals, job challenges, management receptiveness to feedback, role clarity provided by the institution, peer cohesion, equity of opportunity and compensation, perceived personal importance, and timely and constructive feedback (Grego-Planer, 2019). In contrast, Meyer et al. (2002) believe that the affective dimension is closely and strongly linked to positive work-related behaviors (e.g., attendance, personnel stability, and behavior of organizational citizenship). The affectively committed employees ordinarily align with the organizational objectives, perceive that they are apt for the organization, and are satisfied with the work for it. Noraazian and Khalip (2016) mentioned that an employee's affective commitment bears in mind three main facets namely; the development of psychological affinity to an organization, linkage with the organization, and the wish to remain as a member of the organization.

As per Meyer and Maltin (2010), research has consistently demonstrated positive relations between affective commitment to the organization and indices of employee well-being, such as overall physical well-being, mental health, positive affect, and job-related well-being. On the contrary, negative relations have consistently been found with measures of strain such as anxiety and depression, negative affect, burnout, and job-related tension. Furthermore, Meyer and Allen (1997) notified that there have been a large number of researchers who analyzed the relationship between affective commitment and life quality. These researchers stated that the predictors of affective organizational commitment generally occurred in three categories: a) organizational characteristics, b) personal characteristics, and c) work experiences (ibid).

Accordingly, it can be said that fostering identification and attachment towards the organization, Affective commitment gives employees a sense of stability, security, and belonging that makes them more resistant to any kind of work stressors, and more positive towards their organization (Schmidt, 2007).

2.3.2.1.2. Continuance Commitment

Continuance commitment is defined as the degree to which an employee is aware of the costs of leaving their organization (remaining as they are not able to leave) (remaining as they are not able to leave) (Scandura, 2019). That is, a sense of continued commitment is present when an employee must remain with the organization because they need the benefits and salary or cannot find another acceptable job (Spector, 2012). The longer employee works

in the organization, if they leave, they would lose much of what they have invested over time while working for it (Meyer et al., 2002). According to Brown (1996), these perceived losses - or "side bets" as they are called - include but are not limited to; salary, non-vested retirement benefits, job security, accrued vacation, friendship ties with co-workers, etc. Many employees do not want to sacrifice these matters. Therefore, persons who have a lot of investment in their organization are less likely to leave (Alsiewi et al., 2016). As per Meyer and Allen (1997), such employees have a high degree of continuance commitment, as they remain with a specific organization because of the investments that they get as a result of time spent in the organization, not because they want to. Thus, unlike affective commitment, which involves emotional attachment, continuance commitment reflects a calculation of the costs of leaving versus the benefits of staying (Alsiewi et al., 2016). That is, the need to remain is "profit" associated with continued participation, and termination of service is a "cost" associated with leaving. These individuals put forth their best effort only when the rewards match their expectations (Starnes & Truhon, n.d.). Therefore, the reasoning is that employees will maintain commitment largely out of self-interest associated with the perceived costs of not keeping the commitment (Brown, 1996). Extending this reasoning, the more employees invest in their job, the higher their perceived sacrifice of leaving the organization might be (Lau, 2011). Hence, in order for keeping employees who are committed to continuity, the organization needs to pay more attention and appreciation to those elements that reinforce employee morale of the employee to be emotionally engaged via increasing the perceived organizational support (Chelliah et al., 2015).

In the end, organizations seem to not desire high continuance commitment from their employees, since the high value of employee's continuance commitment means that their performance will be low, and also this commitment has consequences on the employee's intention to continue or not in the organization (Aubé et al., 2007; Yoğun, 2014). This is besides continuance commitment leans to create more passive forms of loyalty with the organization (Colquitt et al., 2019), and what sundry studies have reported that this commitment is usually negatively correlated with various types of other productive behaviors in the work-place, such as extra-role, work attendance, and organizational citizenship behaviors (Meyer et al., 2002; Aubé et al., 2007).

2.3.2.1.3. Normative commitment

The third and last dimension of commitment is normative commitment, which is defined as a desire to remain a member of an organization due to a sense of obligation (Colquitt et al., 2019). In other words, it is a moral dimension, derived from a person's felt obligation and responsibility to their employing organization (I feel I ought to stay) (Arnold & Randall, 2016). In accordance with Meyer and Maltin (2010) and Meyer (2016), the normative dimension can be considered as either a 'moral imperative' or 'indebted obligation, as the employee believes that they owe it to the organization to remain out of a sense that this is the proper thing to do (Spector, 2012). Al-Zefeiti and Mohamad (2017) reported that an individual is less probably to leave the organization if their values signal that is inadvisable to do so. In this vein, Meyer and Parfyonova (2010) mentioned that an employee's normative commitment develops as the result of both cultural/familial and organizational socialization processes. This commitment might also develop on the basis of the 'psychological contract' between an employee and the organization (Tiwari, 2009). Thus, employees feel that when an organization has invested a lot of money and time in learning and developing them, they have a moral obligation to carry on to introduce their services to the organization. For example, when an organization has paid for the employees' education while they were continuing their studies to get better their qualifications, they feel obligated to reimburse the organization by continuing to provide their services (Noraazian & Khalip, 2016).

Although many view that "normative commitment" greatly overlaps with the affective dimension (Meyer, 2016), normative commitment differs because it is not necessarily an affective attachment, but rather reflects a sense of moral duty towards the institution (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). As González and Guillén (2007) notified, the main distinction between "affective commitment" and moral or "normative commitment" is that while the first is predicated on an emotional bond, the second is built on a rational bond. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that employees with strong normative commitment will remain with an organization and show the strongest binds towards it by virtue of their belief that it is the right and moral thing to do (ibid).

Finally, having addressed the three different organizational commitment dimensions, it can be argued that individuals with a strong affective commitment keep with the organization due to their want or desire for continued remaining. Whereas those whose base linkage to the organization is hinged on continuance commitment stick on with the organization due to they feel they have a need for that for material benefits or the perceived cost of leaving. And those with a strong normative commitment remain since they feel they ought to do so as a

perceived moral obligation to remain. Accordingly, Meyer and Allen (1997) suggest that a leader/manager can attain a better comprehension of an employee's relationship with an organization when all three dimensions of commitment are considered together, on the basis that the employee is likely to experience varying degrees of commitment across these different dimensions (Al-Zefeiti & Mohamad, 2017).

2.3.2.2. Antecedents of Organizational Commitment

Meyer et al.'s (2002) meta-analysis and Meyer (2016) revealed that most studies that addressed potential antecedents of organizational commitment have focused on comparisons in commitment levels based on demographic variables (e.g., age, gender, education, organizational tenure), aspects of the work or job (e.g., role conflict, role ambiguity, level of autonomy), further to work's environment or organization as a whole including the prevailing leadership practices. Some of these antecedents were briefly addressed in the next paragraphs.

Age and tenure are considered important correlations of organizational commitment (Cohen, 1993). Previous research concluded that age and tenure could impact organizational commitment in their three components, but the continuance component has the highest influence (Suryani, 2018). That is because they are primarily considered as the master indicators of "side-bets" (Meyer et al., 2002). The commitment is shown through employees' intentions to sacrifice their current life to fit the work. It is else exhibited by staying in the organization due to difficulty in getting a different job. Individuals who have been in an organization for certain years would voluntarily sacrifice their life to meet the organization's objective because the longer they stay, the greater the sense of belonging they have. Meanwhile, older people would prefer staying in the organization than moving to a new place due to the requirement in a new job normally asking for a certain age (Suryani, 2018).

As regards the organizational commitment analysis and its relationship with employees' educational levels, recent studies suggest that commitment decreases as employees' educational level increases, while commitment increases with lower educational levels (González et al., 2016). According to Mowday et al. (1982), this inverse relationship may result from the fact that more highly educated employees have higher expectations that the organization may be unable to satisfy and meet. Also, this negative correlation may arise because it might be perceived that rewards do not adequately reflect the education level, knowledge, and skills (Bakan et al., 2011). In a similar context, Meyer et al. (2002) found that such a negative correlation has also arisen between continuance commitment and the

perceived transferability of skills and education. That is, such employees who believed their skills and education would not transfer easily to another organization had higher continuance commitment ([ibid](#)).

Also, amongst other factors with statistical significance for predicting organizational commitment are role conflict and role ambiguity, as the literature indicates that these factors have a strong negative link to the degree of organizational commitment. That is, those who have higher levels of role ambiguity and role conflict are more likely to be less committed to their organization (Meyer et al., [2002](#); Judeh, [2011](#)). In this sense, Mowday et al. ([1982](#)) reported earlier that the portrait that emerges concerning the impact of role-related factors on commitment is that such influences may be positive so long as the employee has clear and challenging job assignments. When the assignments become ambiguous, place the employee in conflict, or provide excessive role stress, the effects on commitment tend to be adverse ([ibid](#)).

Respecting job autonomy, which is seen as one of the major factors of job design characteristics (Robbins & Coulter, [2017](#)), more organizational studies have stated that job autonomy is significantly and positively linked with employee's organizational commitment (Fornes & Rocco, [2004](#); Naqvi et al., [2013](#); Saud, [2020](#)). Specifically, affective organizational commitment (Azim et al., [2012](#)). Employees who enjoy high job autonomy are likely less constrained by situational factors than those who enjoy low job autonomy (Naqvi et al., [2013](#)). Evidence suggests that even though the employee is working harder and they do their duty much more seriously, they still sound to be less enthusiastic and less committed to the organization as they are restricted from working freely and taking decisions concerning their work by themselves ([ibid](#)). By contrast, it has been found that job autonomy at the workplace usually grows employee loyalty due to positive feelings tied up with work, referring that an organization clearly cares about the well-being and retention of its employees (Azim et al., [2012](#)).

Another important factor among the job characteristics that were found to have an impact on organizational commitment is job feedback (Fornes & Rocco, [2004](#)), which explains the positive effect of receiving continuous information regarding the job being done to bring effectiveness (Saud, [2020](#)). It has found a direct and significant correlation between job feedback and organizational commitment (Faraji et al., [2015](#); Saud, [2020](#)). This positive correlation might be explained that the more notice and guidance employees feel - and the

more recognition they get of the real outputs of their jobs and their weaknesses and strengths, the more they try to get better at their job. Consequently, employees through improving their job feel more satisfied, which ultimately lead them to possess more organizational commitment (Faraji et al., 2015).

In connection with organizationally focused factors, perceived organizational support is one of the important predictors of organizational commitment (Meyer, 2016). That is because it represents the organization's commitment to its employees (Colquitt et al., 2019). Examination of organizational literature shows that perceived organizational support is strongly positively correlated with organizational commitment (e.g., Fu & Deshpande, 2013; Chelliah et al. 2015; Scandura, 2019), as employees with a higher perception of organizational support exhibit a high level of organizational commitment (Meyer, 2016), in particular their affective commitment (Robbins & Judge, 2013). Interestingly, perceived organizational support includes several sub-categories, namely; organizational justice, supervisor support, organizational rewards, job conditions, trust and support from management and co-workers, and human resources practices (Nayir, 2012). Each sub-category has an important effect on employee's organizational commitment. This effect can be interpreted by assuming the perceived organizational support theory that employees personify the organization, infer the extent to which the organization appreciates their contributions and interests in their well-being - and reciprocate such perceived support with increased commitment, loyalty, and performance. So, the organizational support concept provides a general approach to the role of the reciprocity norm in employee-employer relationships (Allen et al., 2003).

Finally, as for leadership, it has been given a particularly important role by several authors in influencing the level of employees' commitment to their organization (Acar, 2012). Also, many practitioners have observed that leadership behaviors are highly correlated with employee's organizational commitment which increases their likelihood of retention and increases their productivity (Meyer & Allen, 1997). In the same manner, many empirical studies on the relationship between leadership and commitment have indicated that best leadership practices increase organizational commitment and especially affective commitment, which in turn ultimately reduces withdrawal behavior from the organization. Meyer (2016) argued that leaders will have positive effects on their subordinates to create a sense of institution-relatedness through fairness and recognition of good performance. Furthermore, a number of researchers see that managers with opposite leadership skills can generally adapt workplace behaviors to influence levels of any of the components or

dimensions of organizational commitment building on the desired organizational outcome (Appelbaum et al., 2015).

2.4. Leadership Styles and Employee's Work Outcomes in Different Contexts

Transformational and transactional leadership styles have long been associated with many important work outcomes such as job satisfaction, commitment, identification, citizenship behaviors, and so forth (Xenikou, 2017). Several empirical studies and meta-analyses have shown such associations, particularly with job satisfaction and organizational commitment, in diverse organizational contexts like the business world, the healthcare system, education, the military, and others (Gomes, 2014). The variance in research outcomes may depend, to a large extent, on the organizational environment and research target groups that influence the association level between these leadership styles and the work outcomes level (Skopak & Nereida, 2022). At any rate, these results have also been validated across cultures and in different organizational settings.

Avolio et al. (2004) conducted, for instance, extended research in the healthcare industry in Singapore to explore the relationship between transformational leadership behaviors and organizational commitment by focusing on psychological empowerment and structural distance as mediators and moderate variables. Among the study's findings, the researchers concluded that the transformational style of leadership is a positive indicator of organizational commitment amongst nurses. Also, in two different cultural contexts, Walumbwa et al. (2005) sought to explore the nature of the relationship amongst transformational leadership practices and two work-related attitudes, namely, job satisfaction and also organizational commitment through comparing Kenya and the United States. The study's results showed that practices of transformational leadership hold a strong and positive effect on job satisfaction and organizational commitment in both cultures. Although, the researchers indicate that study's findings do not, naturally, prevent the possibility that some differences exist, in general support Bass's notion that employees' responses to transformational leadership and how it affects employee's work outcomes are reasonably consistent across cultures.

This is also proven by Zainuddin and Asaari (2020) who employed a sample of workers in both public and private sector institutions in the Kingdom of Bahrain with a view to investigating the strength and significance of the causal-effect relationships of transformational leadership and transactional leadership on three dimensions of

organizational commitment, i.e., affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Researchers found out that both leadership styles hold a positive impact on workers' commitment in public and private Bahrain organizations. Most importantly, their results suggested that the Bahraini leadership style in organizations included in the study is more transformational than transactional. In like manner, Yang and Islam (2012), researched the effect of transformational leadership practices on job satisfaction utilizing the business perspective of the balanced scorecard. The study was carried out on the top four life insurance corporations in Taiwan which accounted for more than 50% of the total domestic market share. Consistent with predictions, the researchers attained significant results, where they did find that transformational leadership practices truly helped promote the various aspects of employees' job satisfaction.

In the Thai setting, Yavirach (2012) also conducted a study using leaders and subordinates of thirteen autonomous universities in order to investigate the impact of leadership styles on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. He concluded the direct and indirect effects of transformational and transactional practices of leadership on employee's job satisfaction and also organizational commitment and thus on group effectiveness. Notably, transactional leadership practices were found higher effect on group effectiveness than transformational leadership practices. In a different cultural setting, Rothfelder et al. (2013) did research in the German hospitality industry using hotel employees aimed to measure the effect of leadership behaviors on employee's job satisfaction. According to their findings, hotel employee job satisfaction is strongly affected by leadership behavior. Namely, the effect of transformational leadership behaviors on employee's job satisfaction varies largely from transactional and non-leadership behaviour. Besides, they found that passive management-by-exception had a negative influence on employee job satisfaction. By the same token, Osman and Uli (2014) researched the relationship amongst Malaysian military commanders' leadership styles and job satisfaction with the hiring affective commitment dimension as a mediator variable. The findings displayed that there is a significant direct impact of transformational leadership style on job satisfaction, whereas transactional leadership's effect on job satisfaction was non-significant. The researchers attributed this to the undeveloped transactional leadership practices, which are often followed within the army, namely reward and punishment, and many subordinates are therefore less confident of their commanding officers. They also concluded that affective

organizational commitment indirectly affects the relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction.

In the Libyan setting, Shurbagi (2014) sought to expound on the relationship among transformational leadership, job satisfaction, as well as organizational commitment using a selected sample of a body of superiors and subordinates in the petroleum sector in Libya. It was unearthed that the relationship between all variables was significantly positive. Moreover, he observed that the transformative pattern of leadership makes an important contribution to increasing the levels of employees' satisfaction and commitment through the trustworthy and supportive environment it creates in the work-place. In Pakistan, Sarwar et al. (2015) tested the impacts of supervisors' leadership styles on job satisfaction and organizational commitment using a sufficient sample consisting of superiors and subordinates at functional levels in R & D departments of 15 IT firms located in three prime cities. As expected, it was observed from the findings that there is a positive effect of both leadership styles on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. But what can be most noticeable is that this effect was more in the event of transactional leadership, consistent with Yavirach's (2012) results reported previously, where employees perceive their supervisors as more inclined towards exercising transactional leadership style as compared to transformational leadership style.

In a follow-up, Gitoho et al. (2016) executed a study to check the effect of transactional leadership on the employee's job satisfaction working at all levels in various firms listed on the Nairobi Securities Exchange. Similar to Yavirach's (2012) study, transactional leadership was found to perform a paramount role in influencing employee job satisfaction. Interestingly, the respondents who participated in the study confirmed that their superiors were passionate about what needed to be accomplished and focus attention on irregularities and mistakes (a component of management-by-exception passive), which suggests that there is a situational or cultural effect on appropriate leadership behaviour. Perhaps perceiving this impact becomes clearer when comparing this finding with Rothfelder et al.'s (2013) findings which were reported earlier.

In the Turkish context, Gulluce et al. (2016) examined the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment using a sample consisting of banks employees working in Kars City. The results uncovered that there is a positive, statistically significant relationship between transformational leadership practices and

organizational commitment. According to this result, the researchers pointed out the possibility of claiming that bank managers augment their subordinates' organizational commitment, particularly the affective dimension by adopting attitudes and behaviors of transformational leadership. In addition, Abouraia and Othman (2017) sought to identify the nature of the connection between transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment of workforces operating in the financial market of Jeddah city, Saudi Arabia. As expected, the results disclosed an important and positive relationship among transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment of bank representatives. Of course, such findings support the conclusions of many prior empirical studies that adopting the transformational leadership style enables financial institutions' managers to achieve additional satisfaction, in addition, to fully committed employees.

Similarly, Puni et al. (2018) found in their study, which was conducted in the Ghanaian banking sector, that there are positive relationships between the transformational leadership's dimensions of job satisfaction that are increased by the moderating effect of contingent reward. This means that the positive impacts of transformational leadership traits on employee outcomes can be enhanced through the interactive influence of the two leadership styles (transactional & transformational) together. As a matter of fact, this supports Bass's perspective that leaders can simultaneously apply transformational and transactional leadership patterns to get more positive work attitudes. In the Canadian context, Boamah et al. (2018) have also come to important conclusions in their study of the effects of transformational leadership practices on job satisfaction and patients' safety outcomes in Ontario province. More specifically, they found strong positive interaction between those three elements and suggested that healthcare officials should adopt transformational leadership behaviors in order to increase nurses' job satisfaction, and decrease the frequency of adverse patients' outcomes.

Via two distinct cultural contexts, Cho et al. (2019) conducted research utilizing a sample of leading companies' employees in Seoul and Tennessee aimed to compare the association between leadership patterns and the employee's affective commitment to Korean and American employees. The results presented that the positive association between the transformational style of the leader and the employee's affective commitment was sturdier for American employees than their Korean peers, whilst the transactional style of the leader was positively linked only with affective commitment for Korean employees. Although the transformational style here appeared more strongly in the American context than in the

Korean one, the researchers suggest this may give further evidence that such style tends to have global appeal and therefore applicability in non-Western contexts. Sürücü and Sağbaş (2020) also inquired into the impacts of leadership styles on employees' job satisfaction by hiring a sample of five-star hotels' employees operating in Turkey's Alanya province. They observed that transformational and transactional leadership positively affects job satisfaction, whilst laissez-faire leadership has no effect on job satisfaction, indicating the ineffectiveness of the laissez-faire style in most cases as reported by a large number of writers.

In a recent study, Karya et al. (2021) investigated the effects of transactional leadership style on the job performance of employees by considering the satisfaction and commitment of employees as mediators in Bank X Surabaya in Indonesia. In accordance with the findings, job satisfaction and organizational commitment had important positive effects on employees' job performance. Most importantly, it was concluded that the style of transactional leadership had a significant positive impact on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. This denotes that the higher amount of the transactional leadership behaviors adopted by bank managers, the higher the job satisfaction and organizational commitment of employees. Finally, in the Malaysian setting, Mirsultan and Marimuthu (2021) investigated the teachers' perceptions as to how the leadership of their principals' influences their job satisfaction at public high schools, and thus the effect it has on students' academic performance. In line with expectations, the study concluded that a strong relationship exists between leadership styles and job satisfaction. Importantly, the study findings refer to the transformational leadership style contributing to higher job satisfaction than the transactional leadership style. Naturally, this result supports, as claimed by many researchers, the idea that how a manager leads a work group significantly affects the level of individual's satisfaction, and therefore their level of productivity.

From the above, it can be concluded that the traits or behaviors of the transformational and transactional leadership models are significant organizational indicators of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Although a large number of research efforts have shown (as formerly noted) that subordinates who work with transformational leaders are more empowered, satisfied, and committed to their organizations, the presence of transactional leadership behaviors is also important for boosting the employees' work outcomes in various organizational contexts- and thus leadership can be more effective when both styles are used as needed (Rothfelder et al., 2013; Baškarada et al., 2017). As per Bass and Reggio

(2006), every leader de facto needs to use different styles of leadership to influence others. Therefore, leaders must pay attention to the usefulness and adoption of both transformational and transactional leadership practices because an effective leader can use different leadership strategies relying on the situation (Yukl, 2013).

This leads, naturally, to say that the transactional-transformational leadership paradigm introduces a positive alternative to other leadership theories, as it transfers the leadership concept to a concept that includes effective behaviors while providing a supportive environment for the development of human resources in various organizations. However, additional empirical studies are needed to support this supposition.

Eventually, it should be noticed that the inferences of important studies cue (as will be shown in the next sections) the significance of another variable that should be considered in leadership research, which is "national culture" and its vital role in affecting leader-follower relationships through determining the meanings that leader and follower ascribe to the reality that surrounds them, which may make good leadership behaviors vary across cultures.

2.5. National Culture

National culture is the main component of the mood of any society, from which it derives its perceptions of the world and motives for behavior (Hofstede et al., 2010). It encompasses language, religion, literature, art, lifestyles, living ways, value systems, traditions, and beliefs (Hofstede, 2001). National culture's characteristics appear in individuals and society alike. It de facto expresses the values and attitudes shared by a society's members and shapes their behaviors and beliefs on what is important (Robbins & Coulter, 2017). Hofstede (2001) defines national culture as the collective mental programming and shared values of a group of individuals in a milieu, which is different from that of else groups. According to Hofstede's scheme, national culture mainly consists of four elements (levels), namely; Symbols, heroes, rituals, and values. The latter is present at the deepest level of culture (Figure 2.1) and is the most important and influential element of social reality (Hofstede et al., 2010). Values are seen as a consciously and sub-consciously held set of beliefs and norms—often anchored in the morals, laws, customs, and practices of society—that determine what is right and what is wrong and also define general preferences (Robbins & Judge, 2013).

The way society's members think about things like achievement, wealth and material gain, and risk and change may influence how they approach organizations and their relations in the work-place. A framework developed by "Geert Hofstede" offers one approach for understanding how value differences across national cultures can influence human behavior in the work-place (Schermerhorn et al., 2010). Hofstede developed this framework based on his faith that no single global management theory is valid for all organizations and across all societies, nor can management and leadership be separated from society's culture (Hofstede et al., 2010). According to him, acceptable and effective leaders' behavior differs by the cultural context of society (ibid). The values' dimensions of national culture are described in the Hofstede framework in the next section.

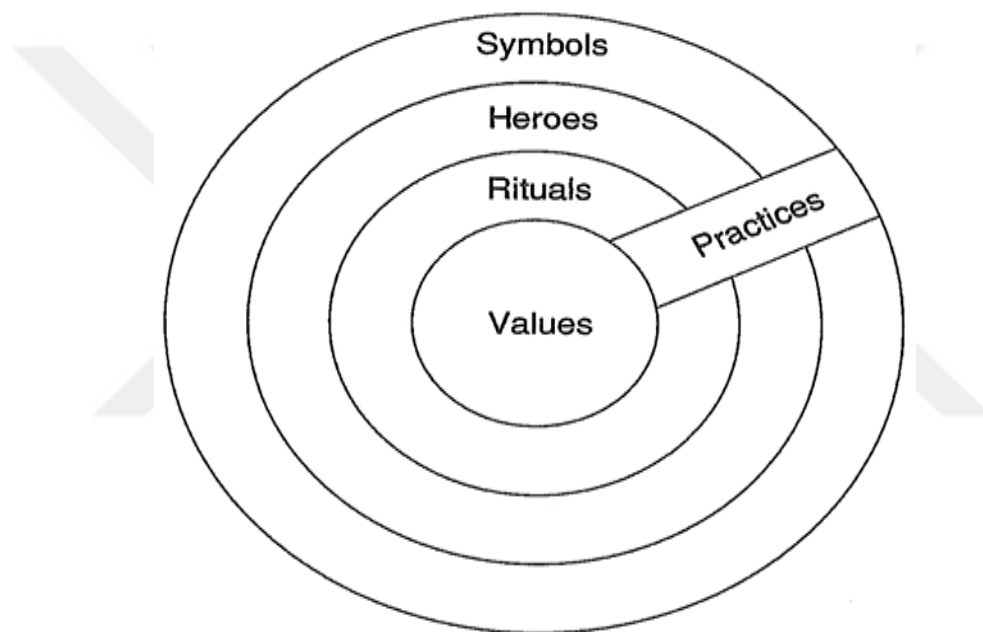


Figure 2.1: The Hofstede's Scheme

Source: (Hofstede et al., 2010).

2.5.1. Hofstede's Framework of National Cultural Values

In the 1970s "Geert Hofstede" developed an empirical classification of cultural values by analyzing data obtained from a large survey conducted on related values and sentiments of people in more than "50" countries around the world (including Libya). These people worked in the local subsidiaries of a large multinational company (IBM). Most parts of the organization were surveyed more than once over several years, and the database contained more than "100,000" questionnaires in about "20" languages (Hofstede, 2011). Hofstede eventually delineated four dimensions of national cultural values grounded on the survey's

results, namely; power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism versus collectivism, and masculinity versus femininity (Hofstede, 1980). Later in the 1980s, drawing on the study he conducted with "Michael Bond" in the Asian environment, a fifth dimension "long-term versus short-term orientation" was added (Hofstede & Bond, 1988). Finally, in 2010 and using the "World Values Survey", research by Hofstede with Bulgarian scholar "Michael Minkov" allowed a new calculation of the fifth dimension, and the addition of a sixth dimension called "indulgence versus restraint" (Hofstede et al., 2010; Hofstede, 2011). Hence, Hofstede's current framework incorporates six dimensions, which have become the basis for characterizing and measuring the cultural values of each country. Each country has its own score on this scale. For instance, Hofstede's findings notified that "Libya" is considered high in power distance index, while its score is relatively low in individualism versus collectivism. Hofstede's framework is employed in a variety of fields including cross-cultural management and leadership, international business, and cross-cultural communication (Beugelsdijk & Welzel, 2018; Scandura, 2019). The full and latest results of Hofstede's research per country and cultural comparisons among countries are available via the website (<https://www.hofstede-insights.com>).

2.5.1.1. Power Distance Dimension

Power distance is a national culture dimension that perhaps has the most powerful and most direct impact on leadership (Dickson, 2003). This dimension shows the extent of a society's tolerance for social hierarchy and power distribution (Lee & Liu, 2012). As per Hofstede (2001) and Hofstede et al. (2010), Power distance is "the extent to which the less powerful members of organizations and institutions in a certain country or nation anticipate and consent that power is distributed unevenly". In other words, it reflects the extent to which people reject or appreciate hierarchies and the authority of a few over the many (Beugelsdijk & Welzel, 2018). Hofstede elucidated those institutions are the basic components of a community (such as the family's circle, the school, and the society), and organizations/institutions are the places where individuals work (Hofstede et al., 2010). In cultures with high power distance, its members consider that unequable distribution of power in society is natural, useful, and possible (Janićijević, 2019). People expect leaders to have greater authority and are more possibly to comply with rules and directives without questioning or challenging them (Yukl, 2013). Power is centralized as much as possible in a few hands of individuals in the organization and employees do not want to participate in the decision-making (Hofstede et al., 2010). Such employees are also less willing to challenge bosses or

express disagreement with them (Yukl, 2013). On the other side, in cultures with low power distance, its members consider that they should strive for equalization of power in society and its organizations (Janićijević, 2019). People view each other as moral equals. Employees typically have their say in decisions affecting them and share in goal-setting activities (Dickson et al., 2003). Specifically, the employees in such cultures have more possibility of contact with top managers and this possibility is used more often than in high power distance societies (Bialas, 2009).

Indeed, the higher power distance a culture has, the more powerful authority the managers or bosses have (Lee & Liu, 2012). As a result, it is normal for only leaders in high power distance cultures to strive for authoritarian or directive leadership styles, maintaining hierarchies and using more formal policies and rules (Dorfman & Howell, 1988). Whereas the leaders in cultures with low power distance strive for participative or democratic leadership styles, with less stress on the use of rules and procedures to get things done (Dickson et al., 2003; Schermerhorn et al., 2010). Given the dimension of the power distance is one of the adopted variables of the current study (as a moderator variable), its effect in the context of leadership as well as employee work outcomes was addressed in a later section with further research and analysis by reviewing some works of literature in this regard.

2.5.1.2. Uncertainty Avoidance Dimension

Uncertainty avoidance is another dimension identified by Hofstede. It describes how a society's response to unstructured and ambiguous contexts (Li & Harrison, 2008). This dimension is defined as the extent to which members of an organization or society strive to avoid uncertainty by relying on social norms, rituals, and bureaucratic practices to alleviate the unpredictability of future events (House et al., 2002). In the opinion of Hofstede (2011), uncertainty avoidance is not the same thing as risk avoidance; it handles a community's tolerance for ambiguity. In cultures with high uncertainty avoidance, people are more emotional and are motivated by inner nervous energy (Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede & Bond, 1988). They also strive to diminish the uncertainty's level by preventing the situations causing it, such as diversity, changes, vagueness, and the like (Janićijević, 2019). They do so by following strict codes of behavior, laws, and rules, and disapproving of opinions and behaviors they see as deviant (Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede & Bond, 1988). In such cultures, therefore, tradition, hierarchy, discipline, and social norms are highly valued (Yukl, 2013). on the contrary, in cultures with low uncertainty avoidance people are more tolerant of behaviors

and opinions that vary from their own; they are more accepting of ambiguity and are less rule-oriented (Hofstede & Bond, 1988). In these cultures, changes are preferred, risk-taking is appreciated, and entrepreneurship and innovativeness are encouraged (Janicijevic, 2019).

Consequently, a high uncertainty avoidance level in culture leads to adopting directive leadership, while a low level of uncertainty avoidance leads to participative leadership (Rockstuhl et al., 2022). Specifically, when there is a high uncertainty avoidance level, leaders use more detailed planning, more formalization, and more centralized decisions particularly concerning new issues (Yukl, 2013). While when there is a low uncertainty avoidance level, the organizations' members prefer flexibility, autonomy, and freedom, and employ fewer regulations, rules, and supervision; therefore, leaders of this type of culture tend to be more person-oriented and non-directive (Lee & Liu, 2012).

2.5.1.3. Individualism versus Collectivism Dimension

Another well-known cultural dimension is individualism versus collectivism, which describes the degree to which individuals are integrated into groups (Hofstede & Bond, 1988). It is defined as the degree to which a culture has a loosely knit social framework or a tight social framework (Colquitt et al., 2019). Namely, individualism mirrors the value of a loose or incoherent social framework wherein individuals are anticipated to look after themselves. While collectivism indicates a preference for a closely coherent social framework wherein individuals care for one another, and institutions safeguard their individuals' interests (Daft & Marcic, 2009). As such, in an individualistic culture, the bonds among individuals are loose, a more tendency towards independence and freedom, and everyone is expected to look after himself/himself and the immediate family (Hofstede & Bond, 1988). And also, individual rights are seen as having more importance than social responsibility (Yukl, 2013). On the collectivistic side, membership in cohesive in-groups, like extended families and collectives, is a critical aspect of a person's self-identity, also interpersonal relationships and group affiliation are highly valued (Li & Harrison, 2008).

The individualism-collectivism distinction is relevant to various topics within organizational culture and behavior (Colquitt et al., 2019). For instance, employees in collectivist cultures believe that their social background is a substantial determinant of hiring practices. On the flip side, in individualist cultures, employees believe that job competence, not social background, is a significant determinant of hiring practices (House et al., 2004). Further, Employees in collectivist culture consider organizational interests over their per-

sonal interests (Lee & Liu, 2012), and incline to prefer rewards that are equally allocated at the group level as a whole rather than rewards tied solely to individual achievement (Colquitt et al., 2019). Also, they are more probable to have a sense of affective and normative commitment to their institutions than others (ibid). Whereas organizations in individualist cultures value employees for their own achievements, status, and other unique abilities, employees are not emotionally reliant on the organizations (Lee & Liu, 2012). As for leadership, its behaviors may also differ between the two cultures. In collectivism, in order to preserve harmony among the work-group and solve personal problems, successful leaders must be directive, with an eye to being helpful and considerate in general. In an individualist culture, instead, support might be only valued when needed, and achievement-oriented and participative leadership would be leaders' key behaviors (Scandura & Dorfman, 2004).

2.5.1.4. Masculinity versus Femininity Dimension

Hofstede also depicted another cultural dimension named Masculinity vs. Femininity, which related to the division of emotional roles between men and women (Hofstede, 2011). This value scales the degree to which individuals in a given culture are motivated by competition, personal accomplishment, and success (high/low). Individuals in masculine communities incline to prefer individual rivalry, achievement, and success, while individuals in feminine communities incline to be caring for others, solidarity, and desire a decent life for everyone (Khan & Law, 2018). According to Hofstede (2001), men's values from one society to another hold a dimension from intense assertiveness and competitiveness, which are very dissimilar from women's values on the one side, to modesty and caring, which are similar to women's values on the flip side. In masculinity cultures, showing emotions is unacceptable, especially when men are concerned, and interpersonal relationships are more official and less close. Masculinity cultures are “doing” cultures, and one's value is determined built on the results. By contrast, in femininity cultures (or low-masculinity), traits and behaviors that are usually seemed “female” are more dominated, like; caring for others, building of social relations, wellbeing, harmony, and balance. Such cultures are “being” cultures in which the value of one is proven on the basis of one's existence and interpersonal relationships with others. femininity culture is not entrepreneurial, and it does not value success, results, and achievement to the extent that masculinity culture does (Janićijević, 2019).

Hofstede et al. (2010) view that masculine and feminine cultures create different leadership patterns. In masculinity cultures the nature of leaders is generally decisive,

assertive, and aggressive; therefore, they would often follow a task-oriented style. While in femininity cultures, the leaders are less assertive, consensus-seeking, and more intuitive and cooperative than stern and consensus-seeking, and more intuitive and cooperative than stern and decisive. Thus, a people-oriented leadership style would be often followed (Dickson et al., 2003; Janicijevic, 2019).

2.5.1.5. Long-Term versus Short-Term Dimension

Long-term versus short-term orientation is a new national culture dimension, also named "Confucian Dynamism" (Hofstede & Bond, 1988), which incorporates ideas of time and activity (Lee, & Liu, 2012). It indicates the degree of orientation of the society, in the past, the present, or the future (Hofstede, 2011). A society that is high on this dimension has a long-time horizon and looks to the future, in particular perseverance and thrift. Whilst a society that is low on this dimension has a shorter time horizon and is more concerned with events in the present and immediate future, and is characterized by the expectation of quick results, high consumption, and low savings (Hofstede, 2001). This society values the past and accents the present, with a rich respect for tradition and the want to fulfill historical social obligations (Newstrom, 2007). Contrastly, a long-term time-oriented society tends more to adapt and change (Ayoun & Moreo, 2009). The most significant element of this cultural dimension is how individuals perceive future planning. In cultures with low "Confucian dynamism", people live more in the present moment, they are spontaneous and they do not plan the future too much (Northouse, 2019). In contrast, cultures with high "Confucian dynamism" enjoy a strong capability and readiness to visualize future contingencies, and seek to achieve goals and develop plans for meeting their future aspirations (House et al., 2004).

In short, this cultural dimension provides another relatively suitable basis for testing the differences between leadership behaviors in organizations across cultures. It makes sense for leaders with a long-term orientation to have a less participative style and a more authoritarian pattern to developing strategy, raising subordinates to be obedient to their supervisor and following up on their boss in order to maintain stable relationships- unlike the behaviors of leaders in cultures with low Confucianism. Due to this, it can be concluded that task-oriented leadership style would be effective in cultures with high "Confucian dynamism", while people-oriented leadership style would be effective in cultures with low Confucian (Ayoun & Moreo, 2009; Janićijević, 2019).

2.5.1.6. Indulgence versus Restraint Dimension

Indulgence versus Restraint is the sixth and last cultural dimension, which was added to the set of Hofstede's dimensions in 2010 (Hofstede et al., 2010). This describes to which extent people in a certain society can revel in the pleasures of life and to which extent they are allowed to pursue happiness and leisure. Indulgence represents a society that permits the relatively free gratification of essential and natural human desires for enjoyment and pleasure. Restraint represents a society that controls and regulates the satisfaction of needs through strict social rules and norms (Hofstede, 2011). People in indulgent countries attach more value to happiness and are more optimistic than those from restrained countries, as people in restraint-oriented cultures are more likely to remember negative emotions and tend to be more cynical (Hofstede et al., 2010).

As per Hofstede (2011), this dimension shows a significant negative correlation with a long-term orientation, a weakened negative co-relationship with power distance, and, no co-relationship with other dimensions. This means the weakened negative co-relationship with strength distance indicates a slight tendency for hierarchical societies to be less indulgent. And the high negative correlation with the Long-term orientation indicates a slight tendency for high-spending societies to be more indulgent. Accordingly, it may be concluded that a task-oriented leadership style would be effective in cultures with more restraint orientated, while a people-oriented leadership style would be effective in cultures with more indulgent-orientated.

2.5.2. Conclusion to National Cultural Values

National culture is an imperative distinguished trait of each country or nation (Paracha et al., 2012). Therefore, Hofstede's framework makes it clear that it is an important issue in management and organization theory, and its disregard by managers may lead to the transfer of practices that may not be appropriate for a particular cultural setting (Bialas, 2009). In fact, national culture has been viewed as one of the most influential contingent factors, which determine the nature of organizational phenomena around the world (Mojić, 2004). That proves the validity of the hypothesis that there is no single best way to run a business (Daft, 2008), as many reported that managers' performance is more effective when their managerial practices in the workplace are congruent with the ecological culture (House et al., 2004). Of course, this means that leadership styles (including transactional-transformational leadership) are probably largely culturally related where culture affects leadership as much as lea-

dership affects culture (Paracha et al., 2012). Thusly, for attaining high performance, leaders need to adapt their behaviors to the national cultures wherein they operate (Hofstede, 1980). Specifically, understanding cultural dissimilarities is especially valuable for leaders, as they have to comprehend their followers to motivate and direct them effectively. Effective leaders not only recognize the relevance of common ideology, belief, and value but also provide opportunities for reinforcement of the subordinate's self-knowledge (Earley & Erez, 1997).

Even though there are several frameworks for comprehension of cultural dissimilarities across countries (e.g., WVS, Schwartz, and Trompenaars), Hofstede's is the most instrumental and dominant in this scope (Terlutter et al., 2006; Bialas, 2009; Mullins, 2010; Daniels & Greguras, 2014; Rockstuhl et al., 2022). De facto, this framework is very useful in identifying how both managers and their employees behave in the organization (Lee & Liu, 2012). It shows strong validity and widespread acceptance in the business literature, and also its dimensions of national culture have provided a basis for many subsequent studies (Smith et al., 2002). As shown earlier, Hofstede identified, with notable contributions from Bond and Minkov, six contrasting sets of cultural dimensions that can be employed as a scientific basis to describe general differences and similarities in cultures over the world, which are utilized by researchers across several disciplines to scrutinize the consequences of culture.

Despite the research providing evidence that all Hofstede dimensions of national culture are coupled with leadership studies and subordinates' behaviors in the work-place, the current study included only the power distance dimension as a critical variable in the study model adopted. Many scholars believe that the power distance is the most significant cultural indicator in the study of the leader-follower relationship and its associated outcomes (Aycan, 2008; Bialas, 2009; Lee & Liu, 2012; Daniels & Greguras, 2014; Mulki et al., 2014). That is probably since the issue of the leader's behavior and the acceptance of followers is originally rooted in the power distance that exists as a norm in the group or society, not to mention that power in various organizations is fundamentally unequally distributed (Kirkman et al., 2009; Mulki et al., 2014). Thereby, power distance is conceived as a relevant cultural value for the healthy implementation of relationships, interactions, and communication between leaders and their followers (Uzun, 2020).

2.5.3. Power Distance Dimension in the Present Study

As a part of the organizational context, Hofstede et al. (2010) discussed power distance as the perceived difference in the amount of power that a supervisor has compared to that of

a subordinate. Because the magnitude of this inequality is accepted by both the supervisor and the subordinate and has direct and indirect effects on many behaviors of individuals in the work-place (Ayman et al., 2013), the current study adopts the prevalent think that the value of power distance as a contextual cultural factor can play an important and persistent role in perceptions, preferences, and behaviors of employees with respect to status and authority in organizations, especially in dyads between superior and subordinate. Numerous empirical research findings (e.g., Clugston et al., 2000; Elenkov, 2002; Kirkman et al., 2009; Smith et al., 2010; Ayman et al., 2013; Wang & Guan, 2018) have reported that such a contextual factor can moderate the relationship among leadership style and employee's work outcomes, effort, and work performance.

In accordance with Hofstede's ranking², "Libya" has come within the group of countries that have scored a high rate in this cultural dimension much higher than the world average, where the power/authority is believed to be narrowly centered in a few persons' hands. Hofstede (2011) notified that such a score implies both managers and subordinates consider each other to be existentially unequal. Individuals brought up in such a culture rely heavily on the hierarchy in carrying out most of the tasks in their organization (Zaghloul, 2017). The superior is often the one who makes decisions without the participation of subordinates and usually gives subordinates precise instructions on what to do (Hofstede et al., 2010). Further, there is a fright of punishment in case of disagreement with management decisions, also violating the orders of a superior or doing anything without the knowledge of a superior is regarded as a grave problem (Bialas, 2009; Zaghloul, 2017). Naturally, all this implies that Libyan employees are more amenable to transactional leaders. This conclusion is in assent with the arguments that employees generally in societies with high (rather than lower) power distances may consider transactional leadership behaviors as the norm and demonstrate a greater amount of tolerance for such kind of leadership behaviors (Cho et al., 2019; Nawaz et al., 2020). Thus, perhaps this style of leadership is more suitable than others for achieving organizational goals (Yukl, 2013).

Indeed, this is true because power distance was originally constructed and has often-times been measured at the country-level, not the individual-level so that it illustrates variations among countries, not individuals (Kirkman et al., 2009). Yet, the same results may not be obtained in individuals' case or at the individual-level (Mulki et al., 2014). In this sense,

² <https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison/libya/>

Dorfman and Howell (1988) indicated earlier the fact that individuals often acquire and accept a society's culture to disparate degrees, as analysis at the individual level uncovers a quite different image from analysis at the societal-level (ibid). Therefore, it cannot be always assumed that individuals will rate similarly to their type of national culture, where there are probably considerable variations in value orientations within any given national culture (Clugston et al., 2000; Smith et al., 2002; Walumbwa et al., 2005). As a consequence, it is believed that in the same culture there are individuals higher in the dimension of power distance who believe for instance that authority characters should be respected and demonstrated deference, while there are others lower in this cultural dimension who do not realize many variances based upon social status, power, or hierarchical role (Daniels & Greguras, 2014). As a matter of fact, such variances in the power distance might appear clearly among many members of society, to name only a few, between educated and uneducated individuals, between individuals who live in cities and those who live in villages, or between high-income and low-income individuals, or for other reasons related to personality type (Zagladi, 2017). In the work-place, ones who think that superiors ought to hold a high degree/level of authority over subordinates are seen to own a high-power distance, while individuals who reckon that a lesser degree of authority is convenient are deemed to have a low-power distance (Wang & Guan, 2018). Therefore, it is often employed that the term power-distance orientation denotes this construct at the individual-level rather than the term "power-distance culture" which ticks to the construct at the country-level (see Kirkman et al., 2009).

Since the fact that individual-level variations in cultural values exist and may be larger than country-level value variations (Wei et al., 2017), organizational behavior theorists stress the prominence of considering such individual value variances when measuring perceived leadership style's effectiveness in the work-place (Kirkman et al., 2009; Smith et al., 2010). Therefore, they suggest that individual differences within the values of national culture can largely moderate work-related relations (see Taras et al., 2010). Specifically, the interactive influence of individual values of the power distance may shape the nature of superiors' relationships with their subordinates (Wang & Guan, 2018). For instance, employees with high (rather than low) power distance orientation are more likely to perceive themselves as inferior to leaders, accept power imbalances, and demonstrate more obedience to leaders (Du et al., 2021). Thence, it is sensible to infer that those individual differences between employees on this cultural dimension/value may manifest in the form of a preference for one leadership style over another (in this case, transactional or transformational). To clarify

more, those with higher power distances are more in all probability to have a much more positive attitude toward transactional leadership. In such a situation, motivating by exchanging rewards for high performance, reprimanding followers for errors and subpar performance, and giving ongoing instructions while maintaining psychological distance from subordinates are likely to be appropriate leadership behaviors (Clugston et al., 2000; Kirkman et al., 2009). In contrast, a number of authors (e.g., House et al., 2004; Newman & Butler, 2014) found that transformational leadership emerges more easily and is more effective with those with lower orientation in distance orientation who value good treatment from their leaders more than those with higher orientation in power distance. In such a case, it is better for superiors to adopt such type of leadership which is based primarily on egalitarianism, counsel, good treatment, and development of subordinates (Dickson et al., 2003).

As such, many researchers claim that the cultural value orientation of power distance may serve as a facilitator or barrier to transformational leadership effects on individuals' outcomes in the work-place (Lin & Sun, 2018). Building on that, it can be claimed that the power distance orientation at an individual-level can give a clearer interpretation of the co-relationship between perceived leadership style and employee's work outcomes in the Libyan cultural context irregardless of the generic cultural orientation of the society on the same cultural dimension. Hence, it was proposed that the power-distance dimension at the individual-level be a moderator variable within the current study model.

2.6. Chapter Summary

This chapter dealt with the literature review of the main variables adopted in the model of the study, as the chapter was structured into four main parts: leadership, employee's work outcomes, related empirical studies, and finally the power distance dimension, which was addressed within Hofstede's framework of national culture.

In the section on leadership, a number of definitions of leadership were reviewed. It was apparent that leadership definitions generally revolve around the concept of 'influence' that would transform individuals and institutions. For instance, Northouse (2019) depicts it as "a process by which one influences a set of people to achieve common goals. Many see the 'influence' rule as the cornerstone of the distinction between leadership and management, as a leader has the ability to influence others; whereas a manager may not. Thus, a leader is not necessarily a person who holds some formal position such as a manager.

The chapter also reviewed a comprehensive review of leadership theories that represent the historical development of leadership, from the great man's theory to contemporary models of leadership, including Bass's paradigm of transactional-transformational leadership (independent variables of the study). Transactional leadership indicates orienting and motivating subordinates to work toward specific goals by exchanging rewards in return for their productivity. This type of leadership is highly associated with reward, monitoring, and controlling followers. Leaders often keep psychological distance with followers (Bass, 1985). Transformational leadership style, on the other hand, describes the process by which leaders create a connection with followers, attend to their individual needs, and help followers reach their potential in order to exert extra efforts for their organization (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Bass and Avolio (1994) introduced "The Full Range Leadership Model", which grew out of Bass' (1985) multifactor model of transactional and transformational leadership. The model includes three transactional dimensions, five transformational dimensions, and one non-leadership dimension (laissez-faire leadership's behaviour). As per Bass, these styles are not contradictory and some combinations of both might boost effective leadership.

In the second section of this chapter, the most important employee's work outcomes adopted in the study model (dependent variables) were addressed. The term employee's work outcomes refer to individuals' affective reactions tied to work-related attitudes (Ambula et al., 2016). The study only focused on a couple of these outcomes, namely, Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as dependent variables. According to Spector (2012), these outcomes are deemed the most important elements that mirror how employees feel about their work and the institution to which they belong.

Job satisfaction indicates the pleasurable emotional state arising from the evaluation of one's job or job experiences (Locke, 2003). It is established that there are five aspects of job satisfaction, namely: The work itself, Pay (Salary/Honorarium), Promotion chances, Supervision, and Co-workers (Luthans, 2011). Literature connotes that the measurement of job satisfaction requires evaluating all these aspects because it provides a more complete picture of an employee's job satisfaction and also allows the employee themselves to have various feelings on various aspects of the job (Ngodo, 2008). As any discussion of job satisfaction will be incomplete and inadequate if the contributions of leading theorists are not taken into consideration, a brief review of some of those theories was done. Generally, these theories fall into two categories: content theories and process theories. Content theories center on the content of motivation in the shape of needs and refer to the components of motivation but,

it does not explain how motivation affects performance (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). Process theories focus on the "how" of motivation. Instead of focusing on what people need, that is, focusing on the psychological and behavioral processes that humans follow (Mullins, 2010). Although no single theory of those contributions can fully explain the process of motivating individuals, the understanding of these theories by the leader will play an important role in motivating the employee and improving their performance.

The second type of employee's work outcomes that are included in this study is organizational commitment. It represents the degree to which one ties up with their organization (Newstrom, 2007). It has been frequently conceptualized as a multi-dimensional construct. As per Meyer (2016), the most widely used conceptualization of organizational commitment is a three-dimensional model, i.e., affective, normative, and continuance commitment. Affective commitment implies an affective attachment to the organization. Normative commitment consists of the perceived obligation to remain in the organization. Although the latter sometimes overlaps with affective commitment, the difference between the two is that individuals with affective commitment want to stay in the organization, while individuals with normative commitment feel they ought to. Finally, continuance commitment is related to the recognition of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Individuals with a high continuance commitment feel that it is too costly to leave the organization. Concerning the antecedents of organizational commitment. In this context, meta-analyses revealed that most studies that addressed potential antecedents of organizational commitment have focused on comparisons in commitment levels based on demographic variables (e.g., age, gender, education, organizational tenure), aspects of the work or job (e.g., role conflict, role ambiguity, level of autonomy), further to work's environment or organization as a whole including the prevailing leadership practices.

In the section on reviewing previous studies that dealt with the relationships between leadership styles and several types of employee's work outcomes, it was found that the attributes or behaviors of transformational and transactional leadership styles are important organizational indicators of several work outcomes including; Job satisfaction and organizational commitment in various organizational and cultural contexts. It has also been proven in many cases that this leadership model offers a positive alternative to other leadership theories, as it transfers the concept of leadership to one that includes effective behaviors while providing a supportive environment for the development of human resources in various organizations. Though such results are in favor of claiming the universality of this

model and its applicability in different cultural contexts, additional empirical studies are needed to back up this assumption, particularly in non-Western settings.

The last section of this chapter deals with the explanation and analysis of another important variable in the study model, which is the cultural value of power distance (moderator variable). Power distance is a well-established cultural theory that explains the extent to which lower-ranking individuals in a society accept the unequal distribution of power. This cultural dimension is addressed within Hofstede's framework of national cultural values. According to this framework, there are six contrasting sets of cultural dimensions that can be employed as a scientific basis to describe general differences and similarities in cultures over the world. These dimensions are power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism vs. collectivism, masculinity versus femininity, long-term versus short-term orientation, and indulgence versus restraint (Hofstede, 2011). Power distance is considered to be the most important of those dimensions in organizational settings, and it can influence the acceptable and effective behavior of leaders according to the cultural context of the society (*ibid.*). Initially, this dimension was at the society or culture level, but it was later confirmed that individuals may have personality traits high or low on this cultural dimension regardless of the society in which they live - and thus this difference can play a critical role in influencing many organizational outcomes. Therefore, the power distance dimension appears in this study as a moderating variable that can significantly influence the relationship between perceived leadership style and employee's work outcomes.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter deals with a description of the philosophy, approach, methodology, and other procedures that were followed to carry out the study. This was done by being guided by "Saunders's Research Onion" (see Figure 3.1) as a useful tool for thinking holistically about methodology and understanding the decisions that need to make in terms of research design and implementation. First of all, the chapter, in short, reviewed the research design that was adopted in the current study. Next, the study population and sampling method were described. But before delving into the other methodological steps, an overview was given of the Libyan banking sector and its development in order to identify the nature of the institutions to which the members of the study's population belong. Then, the instrument employed to collect primary data was depicted in detail. Procedures to ensure the validity and reliability of the study instrument were also addressed. Furthermore, the statistical treatments and technics that employed in analyzing the study data and drawing conclusions were reported. In the end, a chapter summary and the most prominent ethical considerations related to conducting the study were presented.

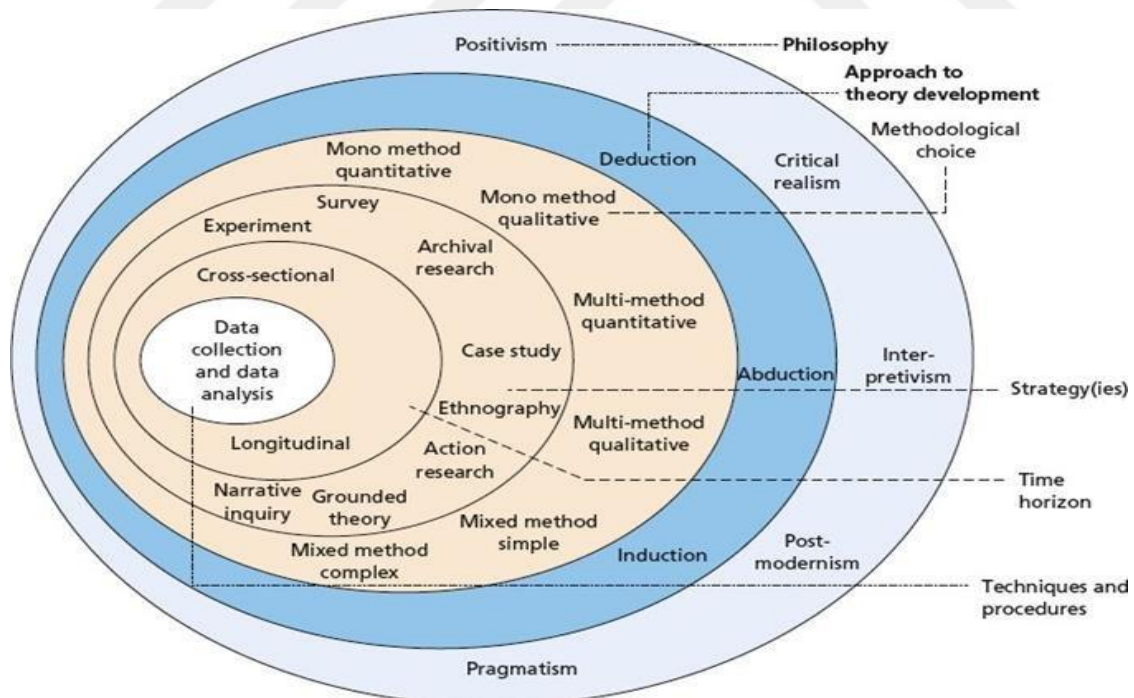


Figure 3.1: The Research Onion

Source: (Saunders et al., 2016).

3.2. Study Design

Over intensively reviewing the research's philosophies and methods in the field of management and organization, the current study was based on the positivist philosophy paradigm which assumes that reality can be attained through observation and experimentation (Saunders et al., 2016). In addition, a deductive approach in order to develop and examine the relationships among variables of interest has been espoused. The positivist paradigm often values objectivity and develops theory through adopting the deduction approach to make and test hypotheses/claims that are derived from a standing theory or literature, including identifying and testing causal relationships under certain conditions (Creswell, 2009; Saunders et al., 2016; Leavy, 2017). The deductive approach, according to Antonakis and Day (2018), is deemed a more common approach in the organizational behavior's area. Furthermore, such an approach supported by positivist philosophy makes generalizations possible for the wider population and concurrently permits the researcher to remain relatively independent from the respondents in the topic's domain under research by adopting a position of neutrality (Creswell, 2009).

Since the current study mainly investigates the relationships between certain variables and the detection of their effects and their predictability, the most appropriate methodological choice for such a case - which has already been adopted here - is the methodology of quantitative research. The quantitative methodology endeavors to establish statistically significant relationships amongst variables of interest through quantitative measurement (Greener, 2008). The quantitative choice focuses on theory testing rather than theory generation through its association mostly with the deductive approach and positivist philosophy (Robson & McCartan, 2016; Leavy, 2017). According to Stentz et al. (2012), a great deal of what is currently understood about leadership has been developed primarily via quantitative, statistical approaches. Also, others see that adopting the methodology of quantitative research is a useful way of research in measuring attitudes, behaviors, preferences, or beliefs using statistical analysis and generalization of description (Noordin & Masrek, 2016).

Besides, this study adopted the survey strategy, which involves sampling from a representative proportion of the population (Saunders et al., 2016). According to Bryman and Bell (2011), this strategy is often associated with a quantitative research methodology. Many researchers point out that the survey strategy as a research design is vastly utilized in the social sciences, particularly in organizational research, where it is often employed to collect

various kinds of data and is especially explicit when researching attitudes, behaviors, and opinions (Sreejesh et al., 2014; Robson & McCartan, 2016). Such a strategy also permits the gathering of rich, reliable, and vast data that is used later for answering the research question(s) (Leavy, 2017). Indeed, utilizing a quantitative methodology with adopting a survey strategy to gather relevant data is prevalent in the field of organizational behavior. Naturally, this also extends to the area of leadership studies, where such research methods are often used (Stentz et al., 2012). Antonakis et al. (2004) noted that the field of organizational behavior, especially leadership, is full of quantitative survey research by reason of the research nature. Further, the advantage of using these methods is that the findings are statically reliable and can be expected in a wider population (Noordin & Masrek, 2016).

Finally, with respect to the time horizon employed in this study, a cross-sectional time horizon was espoused. It is a kind of research design by which data from many different individuals are collected at a single point in time utilizing a sampling method (Sreejesh et al., 2014). Despite, the criticisms of this time horizon due to its lack of sufficient temporal insight to afford causality among variables (unlike longitudinal time horizon), it is considered the most opportune and widely used in management and organization research (Sanders et al., 2014). That is due to several reasons including that a cross-sectional study is typically associated with quantitative research (Bryman & Bell, 2011), and often employs the survey strategy (Saunders et al., 2016). Moreover, according to Sreejesh et al. (2014), cross-sectional data is oftentimes more representative of the general population than longitudinal data. Importantly, cross-sectional research is relatively inexpensive and does not take a long time to undertake especially since the time period allotted to the researcher as a Ph.D. student to complete the thesis is very limited (Saunders et al., 2016).

In summary, it can be said that the current study espouses the quantitative research methodology to test hypotheses and reach objective results, in addition to following the survey strategy with the cross-sectional time horizon to gather primary data utilizing a structured questionnaire that will be detailed in a later section of this chapter.

3.3. Population and Sampling

In the present study, the study population refers to all full-time Libyan white-collar employees who do not occupy clear and distinct leadership positions and work in all five major public banks. It would be harsh to reach all the banks that are spread over the country. Therefore, the study sample contained only a number of branches of these banks operating

in two major cities in Libya, namely; Tripoli and Benghazi. As it is known, Tripoli is the capital of Libya, while Benghazi is the second biggest city in the country and is historically known as the capital of "Cyrenaica" province. Governmental Censuses and many studies have demonstrated that people from almost all Libyan regions/ tribes live and work in these two cities, which essentially have a high-power distance culture, like the rest of the country - thereby making these two cities considerably representative of the broader population.

In effect, the reason for picking out the banking sector as a population for this study is due to the vital role that this sector plays in the national economy through the basic services it performs in the country's economic system. Perhaps the emergence of the state of macroeconomic instability that the country has witnessed in recent years is a natural result of the crises that this sector confronts. In addition to the fact that the banking institutions embrace large numbers of a diverse and educated labor force - of both genders - that generally represents all groups and tribes of Libyan society, constituting a challenging and rich setting for the leadership models. Also, since members of such a population are mostly characterized by being graduates of higher education institutions, this ensures that they have a good grasping of the questions- and thus it will give the researcher the opportunity to get deeper views and richer information that can greatly serve the purposes of the research.

Targeted employees encompassed staff from middle and supervisory management. In this sense, the sample included only the heads of departments and units, their assistants, and their employees, while branches' managers and administrations' managers, and their deputies, were excluded. In an attempt to obtain more accurate results, newly hired employees with less than one year of experience were also excluded from this study. Kececi (2017) proposes that at least one year's work experience would reassure the researcher that the employee has adequate time and experience to observe their manager's leadership behaviors.

The gross number of public banks represented in the study sample was "34" banking branches, randomly selected, from a total of "179" branches operating located in the cities of "Tripoli" and "Benghazi" (see Appendix IV). Also, in order to ensure that the sample selected in this study is representative of the population, the method of random probability sampling was followed, giving equal chances to all involved participants (Creswell, 2009). The participants were randomly picked out from a list of banking employees provided by each branch. In accordance with the law of statistical regularity, if the sample selected on average is random, then the sample will enjoy the same structure and characteristics as the large group.

Perhaps this is the real cause why random sampling has been seen as the best method to choose a representative sample.

Finally, since the total size of the population is unknown precisely in this study, and also an attempt to avoid the possibility of sampling error due to potential differences among representatives in the sample, for example; differences in educational level, a relatively large sample size was used and a propitious sample design was executed (Greener, 2008).

3.4. Libyan Banking Sector and its Development

Historically, the banking sector in Libya began with the emergence of an "agricultural bank", which was established during the "second Ottoman rule" for Libya with two branches, one in "Benghazi" in 1868 and the other in "Tripoli" in 1901. Then two branches of the "Ottoman Bank" were opened, the first in "Tripoli" in 1906 and the second branch in "Benghazi" in 1911, both lasting until 1913 (Al-Hamruni, 2013). In addition, four branches of Italian banks opened prior to Italy's occupation of Libya (1911-1942) and continued until it left the country during "World War II" in 1942. These Italian branches are the branch of "di Roma Bank", the branch of "Central Bank of Italian", the branch of "Sicilia Bank", and the branch of "Naples Bank". Two local institutions were also established, namely; "Al-Ahli Bank of Tripoli", and the "Libya Savings Fund" with branches in the states of Tripoli and Cyrenaica (ibid).

During the period of British and French military administration of the country (1942-1951), the British "Barclays Bank" was opened with twain branches in "Tripoli" and "Benghazi", as it undertook the duties of the British Ministry of Finance and issued currency on behalf of the occupation authorities. This juncture was also marked by the resumption of some Italian banks to their business, and thus the banking system began to expand, as permission was granted to open new branches for Arab and foreign banks to operate in Libya.

After Libya's independence and during the period of the monarchy (1952 - 1969), the banking sector witnessed another development represented by the foundation of the "Libyan National Bank" in "Tripoli" in 1955 (later called the Central Bank of Libya), with branches in three other cities; Benghazi, Sabha, and AlBeyda. It has been entrusted with the missions of issuing currency, regulating credit operations, monetary policy, and monitoring work on commercial banks. This period was also characterized by a set of steps, on top of which was

the nationalization³ of a group of Arab and foreign banks with 51% of the capital each of them. Accordingly, a good number of commercial banks were instituted and opened, namely; Commercial Bank, Sahara Bank, Arab African Banking Company, North Africa Bank, and Arab Nahda Bank (Al-Hamruni, 2013).

Notably, Sahara Bank was the first Libyan commercial bank with purely national cadres, and it came as a consequence of the nationalization of America Bank in Tripoli and the Italian branch of Sicilia Bank (Saadi, 2016).

Furthermore, two specialized banks were constituted during the 1960s, namely: Libyan Industrial Real Estate Bank and Libyan National Agricultural Bank (ibid).

Thus, Libya had a national central bank and five commercial banks in which Libyans own 51% of their capital. In addition to two Libyan specialized banks and four foreign commercial banks, namely; di Roma Bank, Barclays Bank, Arab Bank, and Naples Bank.

Over the interval that followed September 1969, the banking system witnessed the nationalization and reorganization of a number of other foreign commercial banks in addition to renaming them with Arabic names (Al-Mutaa et al., 2014), namely:

1. "Di Roma Bank", which was renamed "Umma Bank."
2. "Barclays Bank", which was renamed "Jumhouria Bank."
3. "Arab Bank", which was renamed "Orouba Bank."
4. "Bank of Naples", which was renamed "Istiklal Bank."

Later in 1970, these two latter were merged (i.e., Orouba Bank and Istiklal Bank) into one bank that has held the name "National Commercial Bank". In addition, in the same year, a new bank was founded called "Wahda Bank", which was established by merging five commercial banks that were working at the time: Arab African Banking Company, North Africa Bank, Gafila Bank, Arab Nahda Bank, and Commercial Bank (Al-Mutaa et al., 2014).

Besides, "The Libyan Foreign Bank" was founded in 1972, as an "Offshore bank", with wholly subscribed capital from the "Central Bank of Libya". It contributes, in accordance with the latest data, to more than 40 African, Asian, and European financial institutions (www.lfb.ly). Also, two other specialized banks were instituted in 1981: "Savings & Real

³ It is the process of converting foreign companies or banks into Libyan joint stock companies in which the Libyan state owns no less than 51% of their capital.

Estate Investment Bank" and "Development Bank". The latter replaced "The Libyan Real Estate Industrial Bank" (Al-Hamruni, 2013)- in addition, a third bank called "Rural Bank" was established later which aims to give loans to those with low incomes to help them practice agricultural, industrial, and craft activities (site.eastlaws.com).

As part of the reorganization of commercial banks working in Libya, the sum of these banks reached five commercial banks, of which three are wholly held by the Central Bank of Libya: Umma Bank, Jumhouria Bank, and National Commercial Bank. It also owns the capital of most the other two banks, namely; Wahda Bank and Sahara Bank, while natural and legal Libyans own the rest percentages (Saadi, 2016).

Later in 1990s, a law was issued permitting the foundation of private commercial banks. Based on this law, several private banks were instituted, namely; Bank of Commerce and Development, Mediterranean Bank, Assaray Trade and Investment Bank, Aman Bank, Alejma'a Alarabi Bank, AlWafa Bank, Arab Commercial Bank, United Bank for Trade and Investment, Libyan Islamic Bank, Andalus Bank, Yaqeen Bank.

This in addition to the incorporation of another number of commercial banks that found as a consequence of strategic partnerships between some Libyan governmental investment institutions on one side and foreign ones on the other side, namely; AlWaha Bank, First Gulf Libyan Bank, Nouran Bank.

Also, "North Africa Bank" has been founded in 2006 as one of the public sector's banks, where the "Central Bank of Libya" owns 83% of the capital and the rest is distributed between individuals and private companies. According to 2010 data, the bank's capital upon establishment amounted to about "350" million DLY. Currently, the bank provides its services through "62" branches and agencies spread throughout the country, including branches working in the field of Islamic banking (www.nab.ly).

In October 2008, Jumhouria and Umma banks were merged into a single bank under the name of "Jumhouria Bank", with a budget estimated at 20 billion LYD, to become the second-largest Libyan bank after the Libyan Foreign Bank. And the total of employees during the merger amounted to more than "5800" employees, and the number of branches reached "146", with a market share of "33%". Also, building on the size of its assets, the bank has been put among the list of the ten largest banks in North Africa (www.jbank.ly).

In conclusion, it can be said that the total of commercial banks working in Libya currently has reached "19" banks with a total of more than "560" branches and agencies which spread throughout the country (www.cbl.gov.ly). These banks can also be classified according to the kind of ownership into three categories, namely; (1) Large commercial banks most of its ownership in favor of Central Bank of Libya, and they are Sahara Bank, Jumhouria Bank, Wahda Bank, National Commercial Bank, and North Africa Bank. (2) Commercial banks representing a strategic government partnership, namely; Nouran Bank, First Gulf Libyan Bank, and AlWaha Bank. (3) As for the rest of the banks, they are fully owned by the private sector, which despite the small size of some of them compared to the public sector's banks, their performance is developing rapidly and remarkably according to the latest assessments of the Central Bank (www.cbl.gov.ly). Appendix III displays the Libyan commercial banks working in "Libya" with some accompanying data, up to the date of conducting the current study.

3.5. Data Collection

Data collection can be defined as the process of assembling and measuring information related to variables of interest- in a methodical way that enables one to answer stated research question(s), test hypotheses, and make inferences on a broader group represented by the sample (Kabir, 2016). As per Creswell (2009), there are four methods of data collection: questionnaires; interviews; observations; and record reviews. Also, the data collection might comprise creating an internet survey and administering it online (ibid).

As aforementioned, this study employed a single method of quantitative data collection. It is a survey through a structured questionnaire. This is an instrument or printed form with questions that each has a specified number of responses, which respondents complete individually, to obtain information about the problem under study (Sreejesh et al., 2014). In this study, the questionnaire was completed by respondents in two ways. First, some were delivered directly (in person) to potential respondents within the selected sample and asked to fill out a questionnaire. Second, some responded via the Internet, where the questionnaire was sent to a number of employees using their personal emails based on their desires. Of course, before proceeding with the process of distributing the questionnaire to the targeted employees, prior approval was obtained from the administration of each banking institution

to contact the employees and conduct the survey⁴. The questionnaire was collected upon completion after giving the participants a sufficient period of time. The time for distributing and gathering the questionnaire took "14" weeks, which included the period from mid-December 2021 until the end of March 2022, and covered "34" banking branches of major public banks in cities of "Tripoli" and "Benghazi".

Although there are some concerns over gathering data by means of questionnaires (e.g., not knowing how truthful the responses provided are, and the probability of differences in the question grasp) (Kabir, 2016), the questionnaires have a wide set of advantages. Perhaps the most significant is the relative ease of gathering data in a standardized manner from a large sample in a short time and at minimal cost (Robson & McCartan, 2016), as well as being more objective and allowing generalization to a broader population (Creswell, 2009). Also, a questionnaire survey helps maintain the confidentiality of the participant's identity, which is one of the significant ethical issues in scientific research (Greener, 2008). Further, according to Saunders et al. (2016), the questionnaire survey enables researchers to examine and explain relationships between constructs, particularly cause-and-effect relationships.

Also in this study, data collection was done in two stages; the pilot study (pretesting) and the main study. The pilot study involved collecting data from a small subsample containing "41" employees, which did not form part of the population to test the suitability of the instrument in obtaining the desired information before administering it to the entire sample. According to Sreejesh et al. (2014), this also helps minimize any potential errors that may crop up during the main study such as mistranslation or the presence of any ambiguous and unclear questions. Further, the findings of the pilot study can be utilized to determine a method for the tabulation of data to be collected later (*ibid*). After gathering the pilot sample data, tests were conducted to ensure the suitability of the questionnaire for the study purposes. These tests exhibited good evidence of construct reliability. Also, feedback from some participants was used to show a better translation of some of the questionnaire items prior to the final distribution process.

As for the main study, a number of "450" questionnaire forms were distributed to the entire sample members. The number of questionnaire forms returned and valid for statistical

⁴ The banks' administrations gave the consent verbally, except for the administration of Al Wahda Bank, which gave the researcher written approval, which had a great positive role in overcoming the difficulties faced by the researcher and facilitated the process of distributing the questionnaires.

analysis was "321", making the response rate about "71%". More details for both samples of the pilot and main studies are shown in Table 3.1.

TABLE 3.1: Details of the Study's Distributed and Received Questionnaires

Sample	Number of Distributed Questionnaires			Number of Received Questionnaires	Number of Valid Questionnaires	Response Rate
	In Person	Online	Total			
Pilot Study	50	0	50	43	41	82%
Main Study	418	32	450	349	321	71.33%

3.6. Sample Size

The statistical techniques/methods employed in data analysis usually require an appropriate sample size due to its direct effect on the relevance and statistical power of the analysis (Hair et al., 2019). For instance, regression analysis, confirmatory factor analysis or structural equation modeling, and other techniques require an adequate sample size in order to perform analysis on data. The literature contains a large number of recommendations on this subject. In most cases, these recommendations are introduced either as a recommended minimum sample size or as a proposed minimum proportion of sample size to the variables' number. For instance, Tabachnick and Fidell (2014) suggested having at least 300 cases required for factor analysis, whereas MacCallum et al. (1999) see that the number of sample sizes should be greater than 5 times the number of variables. That is, the sample size for conducting the factor analysis in this study for the TFL should not be less than (100) respondents ($20 \text{ items} \times 5$), for the TSL should not be less than (60) respondents ($12 \text{ items} \times 5$), for the JS should not be less than (30) respondents ($6 \text{ items} \times 5$), for the OC should not be less than (90) respondents ($18 \text{ items} \times 5$), and finally for the PDO should not be less than (30) respondents ($6 \text{ items} \times 5$). Regarding the minimum sample size that should be used in the structural equation modeling method, some literature indicates that it should be at least 10 times the number of parameters that can be estimated in the model (Civelek, 2018). Whereas for performing stepwise or hierarchical regression, Pallant (2016) reported there should be at least a ratio of 40 cases for every independent variable. For example, in the current study, the sample size should be at least 80 respondents ($2 \text{ predictors} \times 40$). In addition, Kline (2016) sees that in order to obtain reliable, stable, and accurate results, it is preferable that the sample size not be less than 200 individuals or a special unit of analysis

when using the maximum likelihood estimation method. Based on all these arguments or recommendations about determining the appropriateness of the sample size for the requirements of the analysis, the sample size of the "321" participants in this study is considered adequate in all cases.

3.7. Instrumentations

As noted, a structured questionnaire (i.e., a questionnaire that contains predefined closed-ended questions) was used to undertake the current study. According to the study's model, there are four variables that needed to be examined and measured. Consequently, the study instrument was a structured questionnaire consisting of four parts, namely; leadership styles, job satisfaction, dimensions of organizational commitment, and power distance orientation. In this section, the rationale for the selection of the instruments is highlighted, in addition to the dimensions or components of each of the selected instruments are addressed by showing their validity, reliability, and suitability.

3.7.1. Leadership Styles

In the present study, the multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 5X-Short was adopted, which is one of the most standard tools broadly employed for measuring the leadership styles in organizations (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008; Alsayed et al., 2012; Yukl, 2013; Kidney, 2015). It has been translated into many languages and used successfully by both researchers and practitioners throughout the world (Rowold, 2005). Given the reality that this instrument is not freely available, the publisher was contacted and permission was obtained to employ the scale in this study⁵ (see Appendix II).

Notably, the leaders' behavior was measured here as perceived by their followers. The MLQ 5X-Short represents the latest version of the (MLQ) (Hemsworth et al., 2013), which was originally developed by "Bernard Bass" and "Bruce Avolio", two professors of Binghamton University. MLQ 5X-Short actually assesses the Full Range of Leadership (FRL), and it comprises 36-item that measure transactional, transformational, and avoidant leadership behaviors using 5-point Likert-type rating scales, with anchors ranging from 0 = Not at all to 4 = Frequently, if not always. Sample items from the MLQ-5X are shown in Table 3.2.

⁵ Initially, permission was obtained to use 50 copies for the pilot study. After confirming the suitability of the scale for study purposes, further permission was obtained to use 450 copies to conduct the main study (see Appendix II).

TABLE 3.2: Sample Items from the MLQ-5X

No	Dimension	Number of Items	Sample Item
1	Idealized Influence (Attributed)	4 items	
2	Idealized Influence (Behavior)	4 items	
3	Inspirational Motivation	4 items	My leader talks optimistically about the future.
4	Intellectual Stimulation	4 items	
5	Individualized Consideration	4 items	My leader spends time teaching and coaching.
6	Contingent Reward	4 items	
7	Management-by-Exception (Active)	4 items	
8	Management-by-Exception (Passive)	4 items	
9	Laissez-Faire	4 items	My leader avoids making decisions.
The total items of the scale		36 items	

Source: Prepared based on "Bass and Avolio" (1995)⁶.

The MLQ 5X-Short contains the following scales: Idealized Influence (Attributes), Idealized Influence (Behaviors), Individualized Consideration, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, Contingent Rewards, Management-by-exception (Active), Management-by-Exception (Passive), and the laissez-faire behavior. Table 3.2 also offers the number of items that scale each of these nine components of the Full Range of Leadership.

Through using the MLQ 5X-Short, subordinates assess how often (frequency) their superior uses each type of behavior described in the items (Yukl, 2013). In the present study, banks' employees in the selected sample, were required to report the frequency rates of their immediate supervisors' behaviors. These rates represent perceptions of these employees/followers on their immediate supervisors/leaders in regard to all leadership characteristics as presented in the MLQ 5X-Short.

The psychometric properties of the scale of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 5X-Short were examined and validated in numerous prior studies (e.g., Rowold, 2005; Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008; Alsayed et al., 2012; García-Rivera et al., 2013; Hemsworth et al., 2013; Jaarsveld et al., 2019; Mirsultan & Marimuthu, 2021). According to Bass and Riggio (2006), Several different approaches have been used to confirm the reliability and validity of the MLQ 5X-Short. They furthered that the MLQ 5X-Short scales have exhibited good to excellent internal consistency, with alpha coefficients

⁶ The rest of the items is not displayed in compliance with the terms of the license granted by the publisher (see Appendix II).

above the 0.80 level for all MLQ 5X-Short scales. According to Bass and Avolio (1995), reliabilities for the overall items and for each factor of leadership ranged from 0.74 to 0.94. The average inter-correlation amongst the five transformational scales was 0.83, versus 0.71 for the five transformational scales with contingent reward leadership ratings. The average variance for all constructs except Management-by-Exception Active exceeds 0.50. The average variance for the Management-by-Exception Active was 0.45 and its composite scale reliability was 0.75. Furthermore, the reliability of MLQ 5X-Short in different other studies was confirmed even when it was translated into other languages. For instance, Alsayed et al. (2012) tested the goodness of MLQ 5X-Short by using a sample of "342" employees from the Ministries of Health and Education in "Palestine" and concluded that the MLQ 5X-Short was a highly reliable scale and it fits the Arab culture. García-Rivera et al. (2013) applied the scale to a sample of "102" employees in a Mexican public hospital and found that reliabilities were; 0.98 for transformational style, and 0.89 for transactional. Jaarsveld et al. (2019) used factor analysis with a view to determine the validity of the MLQ in the specific context of the secondary schools in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa, and to confirm how it compares with implementation in other contexts. They found the scale highly valid and reliable. Finally, according to the conclusions of Muenjohn and Armstrong (2008), the MLQ 5X-Short can be considered a reliable and valid instrument, and can be the most appropriate and adequate for capturing the factor constructs of transformational-transactional leadership in diverse contexts - whether it is tested with large or small research samples.

In the end, grounded on the present study's aim, it should be noted that only transactional and transformational leadership styles were measured, as the laissez-faire style was excluded from the present study's model. The laissez-faire style is typically seen as lacking any meaningful leadership (Norris et al., 2021), and has even been described by some as zero leadership (Tosunoglu & Ekmekci, 2016). By and large, according to Bass and Riggio (2006), laissez-faire is actually the avoidance or absence of leadership and is, by definition, most inactive, and also most ineffective according to almost all research on this style. In confirmation of this, Avolio et al. (1999) earlier conveyed the view of a number of researchers that laissez-faire leadership should be treated as separate from the other dimensions of transformational and transactional leadership. Accordingly, the current study scale related to the evaluation of leadership styles only consisted of "32" items instead of "36" items after excluding items expressing non-leadership behaviors (laissez-faire) from the research instrument.

3.7.2. Job Satisfaction

For this study, the employees' job satisfaction was measured using the Job Satisfaction Index (JSI), developed by Schriesheim and Tsui (1980). The scale uses 6 items to take shape an index that describes the employees' general job satisfaction (Fields, 2002). This scale includes individual questions to assess an employee's degree of satisfaction with the 5 facets of the job: work itself, supervision, promotion opportunities, pay, and coworkers, as well as the job at large. Participants were required to tick how much they agreed with each of the six statements using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 0 = strongly disagree to 4 = strongly agree (Fields, 2002; Labrague & Santos, 2020). The JSI elements are exhibited in Table 3.3.

TABLE 3.3: Items of the JSI

No	Facet of Job	Item
1	Work itself	How satisfied are you with the nature of the work you perform?
2	Supervision	How satisfied are you with the person who supervises you—your organizational superior?
3	Co-workers	How satisfied are you with your relations with others in the organization with whom you work—your co-workers or peers?
4	Pay	How satisfied are you with the pay you receive for your job?
5	Promotion opportunities	How satisfied are you with the opportunities which exist in this organization for advancement or promotion?
6	Job in general	Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your current job situation?

Source: Prepared based on Fields (2002).

Schriesheim and Tsui (1980) assert that the Job Satisfaction Index (JSI) reliably and validly measures job satisfaction (Labrague et al., 2017). Even though the questionnaire was evolved decades ago, it is still frequently used to measure employees' job satisfaction in various organizations (e.g., Malik et al., 2010; Meisler, 2014; Labrague et al., 2017; Labrague & Santos, 2020). Using the reliability coefficient was noticed that the Job Satisfaction Index (JSI) scale has adequate internal consistency reliabilities (Fields, 2002). Several past studies have reported a good to excellent validity and reliability of JSI with a Cronbach's alpha ranging from 0.73 to 0.95 (e.g., Meisler, 2014; Hassan et al., 2017; Labrague et al., 2017; Labrague & Santos, 2020). Lastly, although JSI has fewer questions, it addresses adequate and relevant facets of job satisfaction that can provide the information needed for research purposes.

3.7.3. Organizational Commitment

With regard to organizational commitment, it was measured here by using the revised Meyer and Allen (1997)'s Questionnaire (OCQ), which is associated with the assessment of the organizational commitment dimensions. As per Meyer (2016), this instrument has been counted among the most frequently utilized measurement instruments. Originally the model was established by Meyer and Allen (1991) as a three-dimension model of organizational commitment that measures the three dimensions: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. But later in 1997, authors revised these scales in response to various research findings, which resulted in the original 8-item scales being shortened to 6-item for each dimension of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Within the revised scales, there are 4-item that are negatively poled (see table 3.4). Participants' responses are obtained on a 7-point Likert-type scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer, 2016).

As reported by Meyer (2016), research findings provide evidence of considerable backup for the reliability and validity of the affective, continuance, and normative commitment Scales. Meyer and Allen (1997) tested the internal consistency of the OCQ and reported the following means of reliability measures: affective commitment, $\alpha = 0.85$; Continuance commitment, $\alpha = 0.79$; and normative commitment, $\alpha = 0.73$. In addition, Fields' (2002) review of a consistent set of previous studies showed that coefficient alpha values ranged from 0.77 to 0.88 for affective commitment, from 0.65 to 0.86 for normative commitment, and from 0.69 to 0.84 for continuance commitment. This is also confirmed by the experimental research of Sarwar et al. (2015) and Njoroge et al. (2017). All these results, naturally, hint at the possibility that OCQ can be considered a reliable and valid tool, and more suitable for assessing organizational commitment behaviors and different dimensions in the work-place.

TABLE 3.4: Sample Items from the of the OCQ

No	Dimension	Number of Items	Sample Items
1	Affective Commitment	6 Items	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. (R) I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (R)
2	Continuance Commitment	6 Items	Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
3	Normative Commitment	6 Items	I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer. (R) I owe a great deal to this organization.
Total		18 items	

Note: Items denoted with (R) are reversed scored.

Source: Prepared based on Meyer and Allen (1997).

3.7.4. Power Distance Orientation

The last part of the study's questionnaire was devoted to the dimension of Power Distance Orientation, which was measured using Dorfman and Howell's (1988) scale. Originally, this scale had adapted from Hofstede's (1980) ecological level construct of culture so that it captures the essence of the cultural dimension of Power Distance at the individual level (Dorfman & Howell, 1988). The scale is composed of "6" single items that rate the degree of this dimension at the individual level of employees (see Table 3.5). Using 5-point Likert-type rating scales, respondents were required to indicate the extent to which they agree with each of the six items, with anchors ranging from 0 = strongly disagree to 4 = strongly agree (Dorfman & Howell, 1988; Clugston et al., 2000).

Past studies showed that this scale has good validity and reliability at the measurement's individual level with a Cronbach's alpha ranging from 0.70 to 0.96, as it has been utilized in a number of studies carried out at the individual level in several cultures (e.g., Clugston et al., 2000; Lin et al., 2012; Din et al., 2014; Lin & Sun, 2018; Ahmad & Gao, 2018; Uzun, 2020; Du et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2022).

TABLE 3.5: Items of the PDO

No	Items
1	Managers should make most decisions without consulting subordinates.
2	It is frequently necessary for a manager to use authority & power when dealing with subordinates
3	Managers should seldom ask for the opinions of employees.
4	Managers should avoid off-the-job social contacts with employees.
5	Employees should not disagree with management decisions.
6	Managers should not delegate important tasks to employees.

Source: Prepared based on Clugston et al. (2000).

At the conclusion of this section, as noted, all measurement items used in this study's questionnaire were adopted from the established scales. Table 3.6 displays an overview of references for the scales used in this study. Given all of these scales have originally been developed in English, translation and back translation were conducted in preparing the study's questionnaire in Arabic under the supervision of a professional language translator to avoid changing the meaning of any item of the employed instruments. The translation was also reviewed by a number of the faculty members at the Faculty of Economics and Political Science at the University of Benghazi – in additionally to the comments contained in the pilot sample that took into account. All with the aim of ensuring that the correct translation of the meaning is reached in a way that enables the study participants to understand the items of the questionnaire easily and without any ambiguity.

Also, all scales' items were rated on a five-point Likert scale including the organizational commitment dimensions' scale associated with the original 7-point scale, which was modified to a 5-point scale to align with the rest of the study variables scales. Thus, all scales were rated as follows:

Likert scale of leadership styles: 0 = not at all, 1 = occasionally, 2 = sometimes, 3 = somewhat, 4 = frequently, if not always.

Likert scales for the rest of the study variables: 0 = strongly disagree, 1 = disagree, 2 = neutral, 3 = agree, 4 = strongly agree.

TABLE 3.6: Overview of the References for the Study's Scales

Scale	Number of Items	Source
Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X-Short)	32	Bass & Avolio (1995)
Job Satisfaction Index (JSI)	6	Fields (2002)
Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)	18	Meyer & Allen (1997)
Power Distance Orientation (PDO)	6	Clugston et al. (2000)
Total items of the study questionnaire	62	

3.8. Validity and Reliability

Validity and reliability are two important psychometric properties in constructing and testing scales used in any quantitative study (Creswell, 2009). Considering the attention to these structures will help to confirm that measurements are precise and that the data collected is valid and reliable. Validity specifies the extent to which a scale adequately signifies the underlying construct that it is supposed to measure, while reliability refers to the consistency of results. In general, a good measure should be both valid (measure what it's supposed to measure) and reliable (the results are dependable) (Leavy, 2017). After completing the data collection process, reliability and validity tests were performed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 26. Regarding the reliability and validity of the leadership scales, each domain (i.e., each leadership style) was analyzed separately.

3.8.1. Reliability Analysis

The reliability test evaluates the extent to which a set of variables is consistent in what it is intended to measure, i.e., the extent of internal consistency/coherence of the set of elements that makes up a given scale (Hair et al., 2019). Sreejesh et al. (2014), clued that without good reliability, results from such instruments may not be replicable. Cronbach's alpha method is one of the most common ways to check the scale's reliability (Field, 2009). According to Kline (2016), Cronbach's alpha coefficient of a high reading (usually exceeding 0.7) indicates a reliable measurement. This has also been earlier substantiated by Santos (1999) who maintains that Cronbach's alpha coefficient must be over 0.7, so as to be considered permissible.

In this study, the reliability tests were executed on all questionnaire items, excluding the demographic items. The reliability test was constructed separately regarding each scale/measurement. As presented in Table 3.7, the tests results indicate that all the values of the reliability coefficients are high and acceptable to the requirements of the study as they ranged from 0.744 to 0.930.

TABLE 3.7: Reliability Test Results for the Study's Scales

Construct No.	Construct	Cronbach's Alpha Reliability
1	Transformational leadership	0.930
2	Transactional leadership	0.796
3	Job satisfaction	0.804
4	Organization commitment	0.823
5	Power distance orientation	0.744

3.8.2. Validity Analysis

Regarding validity, the main step is constructing tests to investigate the validity of all the study scales. Two important types of validity were tested for the scales of the current study namely; face validity and construct validity. Face validity is a subjective judgment of the content of a construct. Face validity is usually established through expert or researcher judgment (Hair et al., 2019). In the current study, the questionnaire's draft was reviewed by faculty members who have sufficient knowledge and experience in this field to ensure that each item measures what it is expected to measure, and to avoid any ambiguity or complexity in the wording of the questions.

Construct validity signalizes the extent to which a measurement instrument measures the theoretical construct it is designed to measure (Kline, 2016). There are twain types of factor analysis (Exploratory & Confirmatory) that are typically hired to examine the construct validity and sample adequacy. In the present study, Exploratory factor analysis, often referred to as EFA, was used to establish construct validity. EFA is an interdependence technique, whose primary purpose is to define the underlying structure among the variables in the analysis (Hair et al., 2019). Prior to performing the analysis, the researcher examined for the

accuracy of data entry, missing values, normality, and outliers. Skewness and kurtosis coefficients were also reviewed to determine the appropriateness of the data for factor analysis.

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is a statistical method employed to increase the reliability of the scale by defining the underlying structure among the variables in the analysis ([ibid](#)). To carry out EFA, three assumptions were followed as proposed by Hair et al. (2019) namely, sampling adequacy (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure [KMO] >0.5), the eigenvalues for each factor exceeding 1.0, and a factor loading of 0.30 for each item used as the threshold for its retention.

KMO is the ratio of the squared correlation between variables to the partial squared correlation between variables (Field, 2009). The KMO statistic varies between 0 and 1. A value close to 1 indicates that the patterns of associations are relatively compact and thus factor analysis should yield reliable and distinct factors ([ibid](#)). As per Hair et al., (2019), values less than 0.5 are not accepted, values 0.5 and 0.7 are medium, values between 0.7 and 0.8 are good, values between 0.8 and 0.9 are significant, and values above 0.9 are superb.

As exhibited in Table 3.8, the results of the current study show that the KMO indices for all factors were much higher than the recommended limit (i.e., 0.5), with values ranging from 0.703 to 0.946, indicating that the sample size was large enough to assess the factor structure. Furthermore, the appropriateness of factor analysis was supported by Bartlett's test of sphericity, an indicator of the strength of the relationship among variables— as Chi-squares scores for all variables were found to be significant ($P = 0.000 < 0.05$). Results for KMO for all factors (greatly exceeding 0.5) along with statistically significant results for BTS at ($P < 0.01$) indicate that the study data were sufficient to proceed with the factor analysis (Maat et al., 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). Table 3.8 summarized KMO and BTS results for all study factors.

TABLE 3.8: KMO and BTS for the Study's Scales

No.	Construct	KMO	BTS Approx Chi-Square (χ^2)	Df.	Sig.
1	Transformational leadership	0.946	2966.926	190	0.000
2	Transactional leadership	0.760	665.735	66	0.000
3	Job satisfaction	0.773	595.687	15	0.000
4	Organization commitment	0.882	2074.547	153	0.000
5	Power distance orientation	0.734	212.499	15	0.000

Eigenvalue (or latent root), which is the sum of the squares of the contributions of all the variables on each factor of the matrix separately. The eigenvalues associated with each factor represent the variance explained by that particular factor. The first factors in the matrix are the ones with the latent root that are greater than the ones that follow them Hair et al., 2019). Based on Kaiser's criterion, only factors with associated eigenvalues larger than 1.0 are retained (Field, 2009; Hair et al., 2019).

The exploratory factor analysis was conducted using principle component analysis extraction and varimax rotation to examine how many factors are needed to analyze the data (Hair et al., 2019). The results showed that the factors models for all study variables that emerged were generally consistent with the original distributions. Also, these factors yielded for each variable showed variances much higher than the ratio of 50% of the total variance – which has been suggested for social studies, indicating the appropriateness of the research instrumentations for the purposes of the current study (Hair et al., 2019:142).

3.9. Analysis Techniques

A number of statistical techniques have been adopted based on the research questions and objectives. The empirical analysis investigated the effect of leadership styles on employee's work outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational commitment) and the moderating effect of power distance orientation on these relationships. To achieve this end, the use of linear regression analyses has been recommended as the most suitable analytical technique to test the hypotheses utilizing Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 26. Also, all necessary descriptive analyzes, normality tests, and correlation matrix coefficients were implemented. The results of all these analyzes are presented in Chapter 4.

3.10. Ethical Considerations

Certainly, ethical issues are considered significant throughout the stages of any academic research (Saunders et al., 2016). In the present study, ethical issues have been taken into account at all stages. Prior to the data collection process beginning, permission was obtained from the relevant banks' administrations to undertake the survey as earlier described. While distributing the questionnaire, the participants were supplied with an over-view of the study. Also, they were informed that participation in the survey will be purely voluntary and that the data they will provide will be treated with the utmost confidentiality and will be used only for research purposes aimed at meeting the requirements of the Ph.D. dissertation. To ensure confidentiality and anonymity, all participants were asked not to include names, job numbers, or any information that can be used to identify participants within demographic data. Respondents were given sufficient time to complete the questionnaire without any stress, they were also informed that no harm would come to them by passing their data to a third party. Words of reassurance were also included within a cover letter accompanying the questionnaire addressed to all participants (see Appendix I).

3.11. Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed and justified the research design adopted to address the aim and objectives of the study grounded on the research onion's model of Saunders et al. (2016). This study followed a positivist research philosophy. The deductive approach was adopted as it establishes the theoretical framework through which the research hypotheses were developed and formulated. Accordingly, the quantitative research approach and cross-sectional survey method were adopted using structured questionnaires consisting of items on all variables of interest.

With both the pilot sample and the main sample, the random probability sampling method was followed with the participation of employees of Libyan public banks located in Tripoli and Benghazi. The sample size used in the main study was "321" participants, which constituted a response rate of about 71%. Through a review of the literature, it was confirmed that this size was sufficient for the purposes of the statistical analysis.

Also, all scales used in the study questionnaire were adopted from established scales that have already been used in several previous studies. And the chapter included conducting the most important tests that ensure the validity and reliability of these scales. Scales were

validated by using exploratory factor analysis (EFA), whereas the reliability tests were carried out by using Cronbach's Alpha.

Regarding the procedures and techniques of analyzing the study data, the regression analysis was adopted to test the proposed hypotheses in addition to other descriptive analyses, normality tests, and correlation matrix coefficients were conducted utilizing SPSS version 26 software.

Finally, the chapter included a brief presentation of the most important ethical issues that were taken into consideration when conducting the research.



CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter primarily seeks to report the results of the analysis of final data collected from the field survey using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 26.0. The chapter is organized into four sections. The first section presents the demographic profile of the survey respondents. The second section deals with the descriptive statistics of the study variables as well as testing the assumptions of the multivariate analysis. The third section shows the coefficients of correlation analysis among those variables, while the final section of the chapter deals with the results of testing the study hypotheses using linear regression analyses.

4.2. Participants' Demographical Characteristics

Presenting the demographic characteristics of a study's sample is very important to make readers aware of the nature of the characteristics of the participant who consented to participate in that study. The demographics of the present study's sample consisted of age, gender, years of work experience, educational level, and job title. This section presents the demographics of the current study sample through the use of tables and graphs to depict the numbers and percentages of each category of respondents based on the survey that was conducted.

TABLE 4.1: Gender and Age Cross Tabulation

Variable			AGE				Total
			Less than 30	From 30 to less than 40	From 40 to less than 50	From 50 years to older	
Gender	Male	Count	40	60	62	31	193
		Percentage	12.5%	18.7%	19.3%	9.7%	60.1%
	Female	Count	26	44	29	29	128
		Percentage	8.1%	13.7%	9.0%	9.0%	39.9%
Total		Count	66	104	91	60	321
		Percentage	20.6%	32.4%	28.3%	18.7%	100.0%

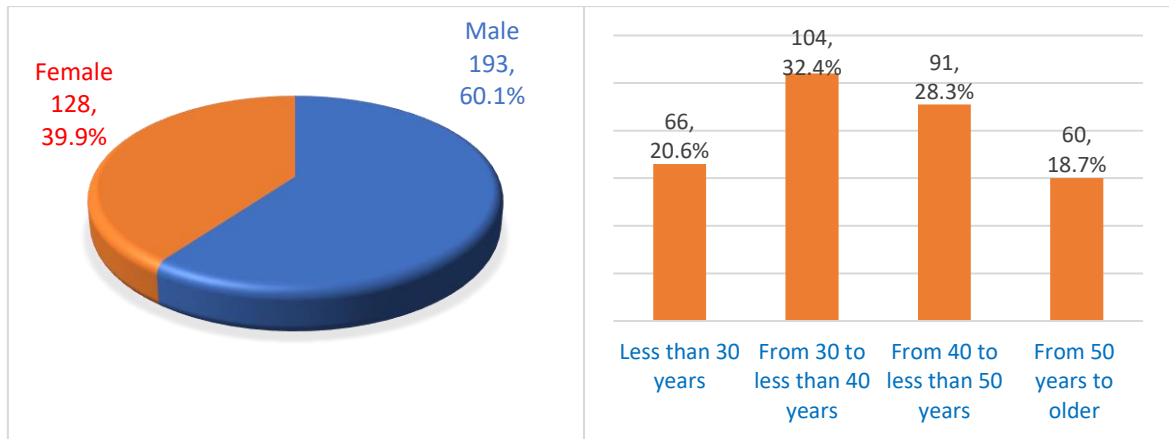


Figure 4.1: Participants' Gender and Age

As shown in Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1, the results of demographic data analysis indicate that the largest proportion of respondents in the survey were males, 60.1% ($n = 191$), while 39.9% ($n = 128$) of the sample were females. The latter is a good participation rate when taking into account the inherited cultures of many members of Libyan society in their preference for women to stay at home over going out to work, especially when comparing these percentages with the total ratios of males to females in Libya according to the latest statistics, which is about 51% and 49%, respectively. As for their ages, the results mark that the participants (of both genders) aged less than 30 years were 20.6% ($n=66$), and between 30 and 40 years constituted 32.4% ($n=104$), while the participants from age 40 to less than 50 years were 28.3% ($n=91$), and from 50 years and above were a total of 60 representing 18.7% of the participants.

TABLE 4.2: Gender and Education Level Cross Tabulation

Variable			EDUCATION LEVEL				Total
			High S. School	Bachelor	Master Degree	Doctorate Degree	
Gender	Male	Count	22	132	37	2	193
		Percentage	6.9%	41.1%	11.5%	0.6%	60.1%
	Female	Count	22	86	17	3	128
		Percentage	6.9%	26.8%	5.3%	.9%	39.9%
Total		Count	44	218	54	5	321
		Percentage	13.7%	67.9%	16.8%	1.6%	100.0%

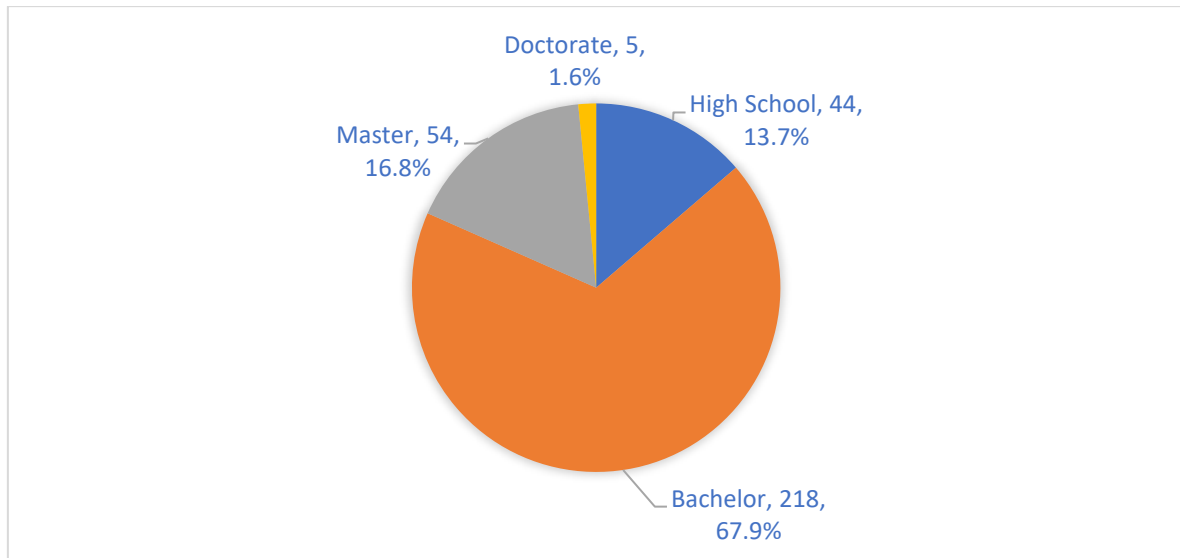


Figure 4.2: Participants' Education

Concerning participants' educational background, as displayed in Table, 4.2 and Figure 4.2, only 13.7% of participants (n=44) reported that they had graduated from high school. On the other hand, more than half of the participants 67.9% (n=218) were found to hold a bachelor's degree, while 16.8% (n=54) had a master's degree, and very few of them, only 1.6% (n=5) completed a doctorate degree. No one of the participants were found to have a primary/elementary school level of education.

TABLE 4.3: Gender and Work Experience Cross Tabulation

Variable			YEARS OF WORK EXPERIENCE					Total
			From 1 to less than 5	From 5 to less than 10	From 10 to less than 15	From 15 to less than 20	From 20 and above	
Gender	Male	Count	57	27	43	23	43	193
		Percentage	17.8%	8.4%	13.4%	7.2%	13.4%	60.1%
	Female	Count	28	23	11	20	46	128
		Percentage	8.7%	7.2%	3.4%	6.2%	14.3%	39.9%
Total		Count	85	50	54	43	89	321
		Percentage	26.5%	15.6%	16.8%	13.4%	27.7%	100.0%

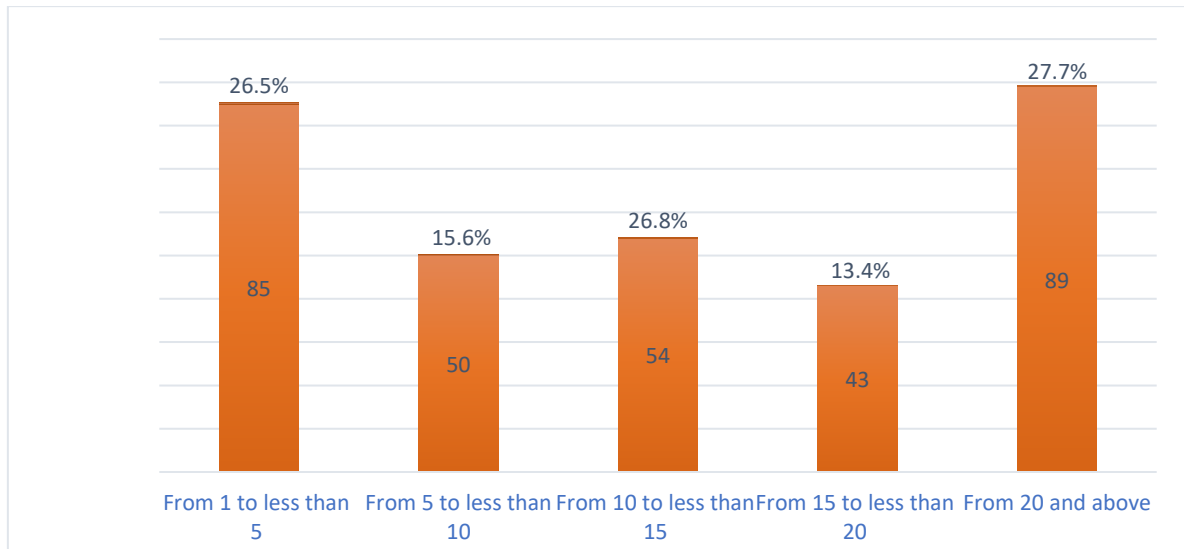


Figure 4.3: Participants' Years of Work Experience

Data in Table 4.3 and Figure 4.3 show another important characteristic of the study sample members, namely; years of work experience which are gender-related, as the respondents were distributed into five categories. The first category, from 1 year to less than 5 years involved 26.5% (n=85), the second from 5 to less than 10 years 15.6% (n=50), the third from 10 to less than 15 years 16.8% (n=54), the fourth from 15 to less than 20 years 13.4% (n=43), and the last category from 20 and more 27.7% (n=89).

TABLE 4.4: Gender and Job Title Cross Tabulation

Variable			JOB TITLE				Total
			Employee	Head of Unit	Assistant Head of Department	Head of Department	
Gender	Male	Count	100	9	24	60	193
		Percentage	31.2%	2.8%	7.5%	18.7%	60.1%
	Female	Count	84	6	3	35	128
		Percentage	26.2%	1.9%	0.9%	10.9%	39.9%
Total		Count	184	15	27	95	321
		Percentage	57.3%	4.7%	8.4%	29.6%	100%

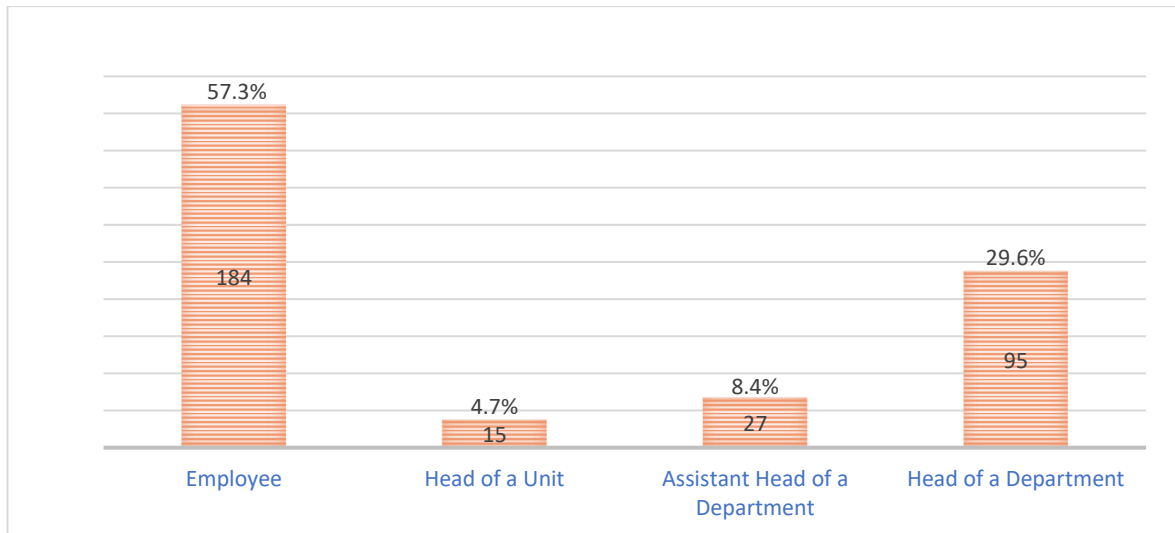


Figure 4.4: Participants' Job Title

As for the job titles characteristic of the study sample members, participants were asked to report that. As shown in Table 4.4 and Figure 4.4, becomes obvious that more than half of the respondents were employees 57.3% (n=184), while heads of a unit 4.7% (n=15), assistant heads of a department 8.4% (n=27), and finally heads of a department 29.6% (n=95).

4.3. Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics refers to a discipline that describes and summarizes important characteristics of a data set in quantitative terms using some or all measures of central tendency and measures of dispersion as needed. According to Leavy (2017), it is common in survey research to first report descriptive statistics and then conduct inferential statistical tests to examine the research questions or hypotheses. Table 4.5 presents the means and standard deviations of the variables in the study sample banks. All scale items were rated on a five-point Likert scale. The scores started at 0 and ended at 4. Therefore, the midpoint of the scale was 2.0 which represents the default mean. of course, participants' average score above 2.0 reflects content approval and vice versa.

TABLE 4.5: Descriptive Statistics for the Study's Scales

Scales and Subscales	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Dev.
Contingent Reward	0.00	4.00	2.2866	0.8759
Management-by-Exception Active	0.00	4.00	2.3590	0.8154
Management-by-Exception Passive	0.00	4.00	1.4463	0.8390
Transactional Leadership	0.00	3.42	2.0304	0.5328
Individualized Consideration	0.00	4.00	2.2679	0.9101
Inspirational Motivation	0.00	4.00	2.5008	0.9573
Intellectual Stimulation	0.00	4.00	2.3544	0.9291
Idealized Influence Behavior	0.00	4.00	2.3723	0.8637
Idealized Influence Attributed	0.00	4.00	2.5210	0.8903
Transformational Leadership	0.00	4.00	2.4063	0.8053
Affective Commitment	0.17	4.00	2.3094	0.7646
Continuance Commitment	0.33	4.00	1.9803	0.5248
Normative Commitment	0.00	4.00	2.3037	0.6988
Organizational Commitment	0.56	3.55	2.1977	0.5207
Job Satisfaction	0.00	4.00	2.5057	0.8301
Power Distance Orientation	0.00	4.00	1.8140	0.6675

According to the results presented in Table 4.5, the mean scores of the participants in the study sample were high on Idealized Influence Attributed, Job Satisfaction, and Inspirational Motivation. While low mean scores were less than the midpoint on Management-by-Exception Passive, Affective Commitment, and Power Distance Orientation. These findings, generally, indicate that subordinates perceive that all dimensions of both transformational and transactional leadership styles (individualized consideration, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, idealized influence Behavior, idealized influence Attributed, contingent reward, and management-by-exception active) except management-by-exception passive were adopted, to some extent, by their superiors in the banks under study, as the answers averages of the respondents in the sample were adjacent. And most of them tended to agree with the scales' items, in particular, leadership styles where are most of the means are greater than 2. However, the transformational leadership perceptions of the bank employees in general ($M = 2.4063$) are higher than the transactional leadership perceptions ($M = 2.0304$).

This indicates that participants see the leadership style of Libyan public banks as more transformational than transactional. Thus, this supports the findings of many empirical studies showing that transformational leadership variables are slightly more important in terms of their overarching concept of leadership effectiveness in followers' perceptions of importance (Biza & Irbo, 2020). Also, the lowering of the mean of power-distance orientation indicates that the study sample tends to have a low orientation on this cultural dimension, in contrast to Hofstede's results, where the mean was less than 2 ($M = 1.8140$).

4.4. Testing the Assumptions of Multivariate Analysis

Since the current quantitative study uses multivariate analysis, the outliers test was applied to inspect the accuracy of the collected data. Also, it is a condition that a test of the normality and multicollinearity assumptions of all variables should be satisfied before applying multivariate analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). The findings confirmed that the variables of this study do not violate the assumptions/requirements of multivariate analysis. The results of each multivariate assumption are presented in the following sections.

4.4.1. Outliers and Normality

The examination of outliers is equally involved in the current study. Outliers are completely different scores from the rest, which are at the extreme ends of the data set (Kline, 2016). From existing knowledge by Pallant (2016), the outlier entails data possessing a value that is contained inside the normal data set scope. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2014), the outliers determined "extraordinary instances possess an important marked effect on the regression resolution". Consequently, the method utilized in this study to examine the data outliers is the Z-score in an individual variable. The data will surpass in instances when the Z-score is greater than + 3 or less than -3 (Hair et al., 2019). Accordingly, the current research did not show any outliers, except the item Y3. The outliers for this item were treated as missing values to eliminate their impact on the research's overall results. But, the absence of outliers does not necessarily mean that the data is normally distributed.

Since normality references the level at which the distribution of the sample data matches the normal/Gaussian distribution, the skewness and kurtosis coefficients were reviewed to check the appropriateness of the normality behaviour of the study variables. Also, among the methods used to test normality in this study was the visual inspection of the histogram which offered that the data were mainly dispersed in the center of the histogram

and appeared close to bell-shaped. Moreover, the standard Q-Q Plots for all search variables were checked (Figs 4.5, 4.6, 4.7, 4.8, and 4.9). The standard Q-Q plots are a common tool for testing the normality assumption. As shown in the following figures, the data points for almost all study variables are located at or close to the straight line, which indicates that the study data are approximately normally distributed.

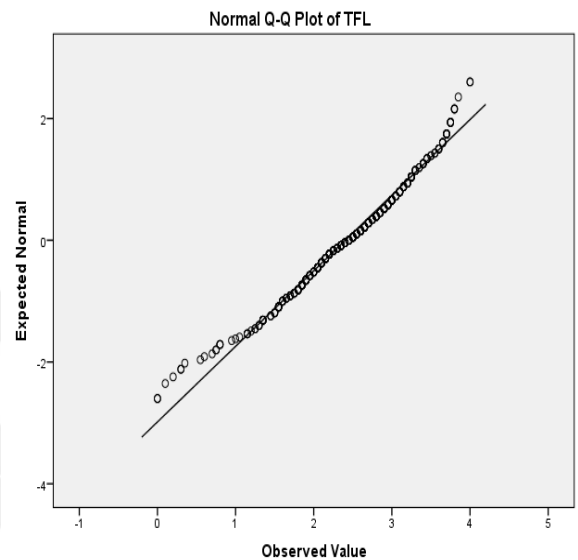


Figure 4.5: Q-Q Plots of TFL

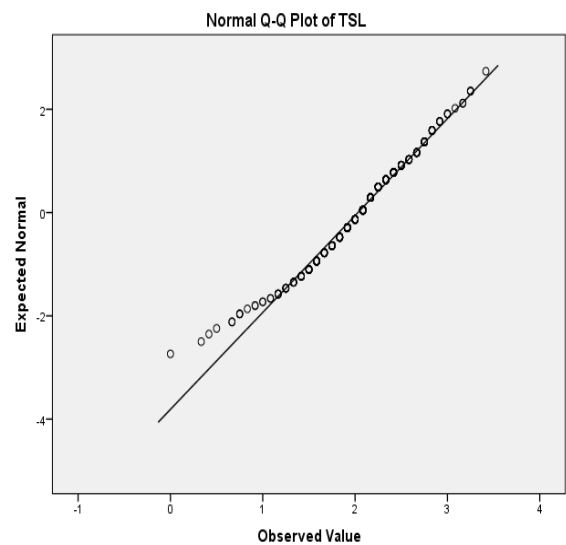


Figure 4.6: Q-Q Plots of TSL

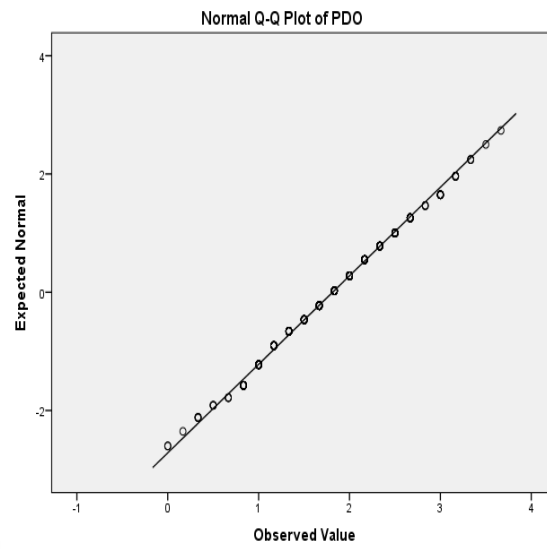


Figure 4.7: Q-Q Plots of PDO

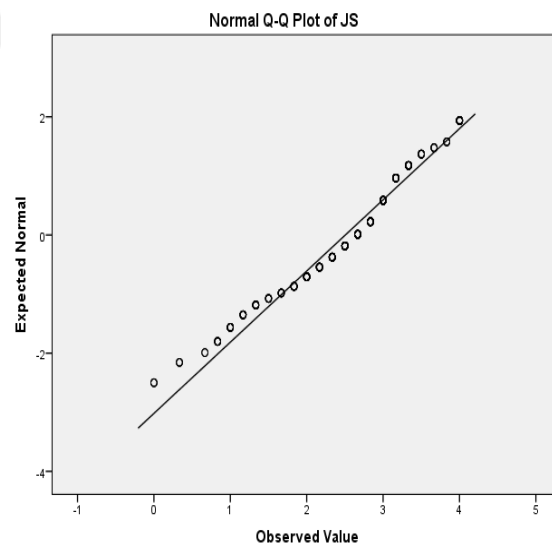


Figure 4.8: Q-Q Plot of JS

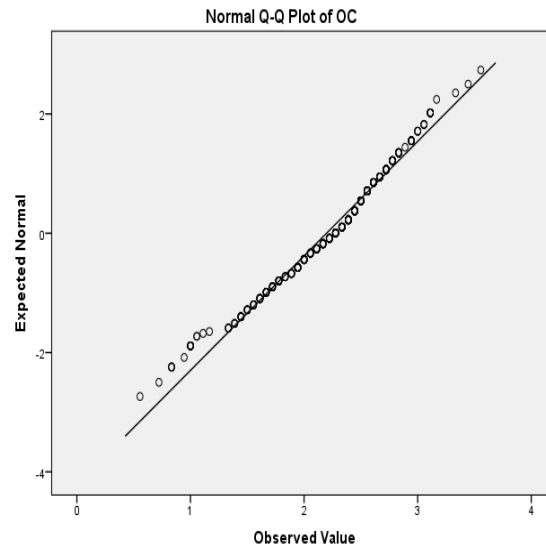


Figure 4.9: Q-Q Plots of OC

4.4.2. Linearity

The linearity assumption marks that there is a straight-line relationship between the independent variable(s) and the dependent variable (Field, 2009). In the regression model, if the assumed relationship is not linear, then the model cannot be employed as the accuracy will be greatly reduced (*ibid*). Thus, it becomes important to validate this assumption. Here, Pearson's correlation was performed and all study variables were concluded to have linear relations with each other as shown in Table 4.7. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2014), Pearson R correlation is distinguished in that it captures only linear relationships between variables. What's more, if significant non-linear relations are found between variables under research, they can be ignored (*ibid*).

4.4.3. Multicollinearity

One of the important problems in regression analysis is the issue of multicollinearity, which takes place when there is a high correlation's relation amongst the independent variables (predictors) used to explain a change in a dependent/predicted variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014; Pallant, 2016). When such a correlation exists, the coefficients computed for each predictor may not be correct, resulting in difficulty in the interpretation of the results of the regression model. Therefore, the predictors should not be significantly correlated (Field, 2009). In this study, multicollinearity was evaluated in two ways.

Firstly, by checking the correlation between the predictor's variables for correlations above 0.80, where it was observed (as shown later in the Pearson correlation matrix) that the level of correlation between the independent variables (TFL & TSL) was moderate as the R-value = 0.56 (Saunders et al., 2016).

Secondly, by carrying out the test of variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance's level for the predictor's variables (Kline, 2016; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). Tolerance is an indicator of how much of the variability of the specified independent is not explained by the other independent variables in the model and is calculated using the formula $1 - R^2$ for each variable. While VIF is the inverse of the tolerance effect and is calculated as $1 / \text{Tolerance}$ (Pallant, 2016). VIF along with tolerance provides good statistics on how likely it is that there is multicollinearity or not. According to Hair et al. (2019), in order to avoid the problem of multicollinearity the VIF ought to be lower than 5.0 and the tolerance's level higher than 0.1.

In this study, the value of VIF obtained from the regression model was 1.473, which is substantially below the cut-off of 5, while the tolerance value was 0.679, which is much higher than 0.1, pointing out that there is no problem of multicollinearity. Therefore, it can be safely drawn that there is no violation of the multicollinearity assumption within the study data as shown in Table 4.21.

4.4.4. Homoscedasticity

The homoscedasticity assumption is essential to linear regression models. Homoscedasticity depicts a status where the variance of the error terms (e) is the same across all the independent variables' values. In turn, when the error's terms have a growing or diminishing variance, the data are pointed to be heteroscedastic (i.e., the violation of homoscedasticity) (Hair et al., 2019). The effect of violating the homoscedasticity assumption is an issue of degree, rising with increasing heteroscedasticity. In this study, by using the visual checking of the scatterplots accompanying each regression model (*ibid*), a mostly equal dispersion across all data values along the diagonal line was observed (i.e., homoscedasticity). Thence, there is no homeopathic problem in the study data.

4.5. Correlation Coefficients

The co-relationship between twain variables or more is referred to as the correlation coefficient. They give an indication of both the strength and the direction of the relationship

amongst the variables to see if changing one or a group of them is related to changing the other (Pallant, 2016). Commonly used correlation coefficients include Pearson's correlation coefficient (R), the Spearman rank correlation coefficient, and Kendall's rank correlation coefficient. Correlation coefficients range from 0 to 1 or -1. A value equal to 1 or -1 indicates a perfect correlation that is positive or negative depending on the value's sign, while values close to 1 or -1 denote a relatively high/strong correlation, and values near zero clue a relatively weak relation or correlation (ibid). According to Robson and McCartan (2016), if this value is less than 0.3 the correlation is generally weak. In contrast, a correlation coefficient equal to zero implies that there are no relationships amongst the variables, so if one of the variables changes, the other remains the same (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014).

TABLE 4.6: Pearson Correlation Matrix between Study Variables

Variables	TFL	TSL	JS	OC	AC	CC	NC	EWO
TFL	1							
TSL	0.567**	1						
JS	0.482**	0.285**	1					
OC	0.318**	0.304**	0.487**	1				
AC	0.282**	0.240**	0.385**	0.848**	1			
CC	0.079	0.176**	0.215**	0.645**	0.304**	1		
NC	0.344**	0.285**	0.506**	0.862**	0.625**	0.323**	1	
EWO	0.482**	0.336**	0.922**	0.787**	0.648**	0.416**	0.739**	1
PDO	0.214**	0.298**	0.206**	0.206**	0.272**	0.151*	0.164**	0.237**

Note: (**) Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed) (N = 321), and (*) Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed) (N = 321).

(**TFL**) Transformational Leadership Style, (**TSL**) Transactional Leadership Style, (**JS**) Job Satisfaction, (**OC**) Organizational Commitment, (**AC**) Affective Commitment, (**CC**) Continuance Commitment, (**NC**) Normative Commitment, (**EWO**) Employee's Work Outcomes, (**PDO**) Power Distance Orientation.

Table 4.6 illustrates the Pearson correlation coefficients' matrix between the study's variables. As noted, most of the Pearson product correlation coefficients were statistically significant ($P < 0.01$). Most importantly, the results of this analysis appear that transformational and transactional leadership styles have a significant and positive relationship with both job satisfaction and organizational commitment in addition to the sub-dimensions of the latter except for transformational leadership and continuance commitment. Besides, there are positive significant relationships between both leadership styles and the power distance orientation. Whilst the variable of the power distance orientation has rather weak relationships with the rest of the variables, especially with normative commitment and continuance commitment despite being statistically significant at the level of 0.01 and 0.05

respectively. Also, the results reference the absence of multicollinearity between the predictor's variables (i.e., transformational leadership (TFL) and transactional leadership (TSL), where the value of the correlation coefficient is only about 0.57 which is less than 0.80 (Field, 2009). Multicollinearity is a term that refers to the existence of a high correlation among the independent variables in multiple regression models (ibid). However, in this study, the absence of a Multicollinearity problem was confirmed by performing test of variance inflation factor (VIF) test as displayed in Table 4.22. Moreover, the high correlation among OC, JS, AC, CC, NC, and EWO is expected as all are measurements of the employee's work outcomes (EWO).

4.6. Testing Hypotheses

In this section, three types of regression analysis were performed, namely simple regression analysis, hierarchical regression analysis with interaction effect, and hierarchical multiple regression analysis without interaction effect. First of all, to test the relationships between leadership styles and employee's work outcomes (hypotheses H1 to H4), a simple linear regression analysis was implemented. This is to understand whether the boss is able to increase or decrease work results when he adopts either of the two manners of leadership (i.e., transactional or transformational) and thus make their subordinates more contributive to the organization. Secondly, the interaction analysis was carried out so as to test the influence of the cultural value of power distance on the aforementioned relationships (hypotheses H5 to H8). Based on the literature, it is expected that there would be an interaction between the participants' power distance value with their superiors' leadership styles which would moderate the relationships amongst the independent and dependent variables. Thus, this interaction effect (if any) will allow for a better understanding of the nature and predictability of this relationship. In other words, the value of this procedure lies in the truth that it makes the leader/manager aware of when and with whom they can follow a certain leadership style. Finally, the hierarchical regression analysis without interaction effect was carried out in order to find out which of the leadership styles, transformational or transactional, has the most influence on the employee's work outcomes (hypotheses H9).

4.6.1. Simple Linear Regression Analysis

Simple linear regression analysis is used to make out the effect relationship between a single independent/predictor variable and one dependent/predicted variable. More specifically, in simple linear regression, the model comprises one predictor variable (the indepen-

dent variable) and one predicted variable (the dependent variable) to explain how the predicted variable changes according to changes in the predictor variable (Cohen et al., 2007). In this study, via simple regression, it is possible to understand the relationships between the predictors (the two types of leadership) and the predicted variables (job satisfaction & organizational commitment) through analyzing the effect of each leadership style separately and exploring its relationship with each element of the employee's work outcomes.

4.6.1.1. Testing Hypothesis H1

Transformational leadership style (TFL) positively influences job satisfaction (JS).

TABLE 4.7: Influence of TFL on JS

Independent Variable	β_j	Std. Error	T-test	P	R	R ²	Sig.
Constant	1.311	0.128	10.234**	0.000	0.482	0.232	f=96.613** P=0.000
TFL	0.497	0.051	9.829**	0.000			

Dependent Variable: JS

To investigate the positive influence of transformational leadership style (TFL) on job satisfaction (JS), a simple linear regression analysis was implemented. Data in Table 4.7 showed that transformational leadership style (TFL) had a statistically significant impact on job satisfaction (JS) ($P < 0.05$). The value of R was 0.482 and the R² was (0.232) which clues that the independent variable i.e., transformational leadership style (TFL) explained 23% of the variance of the dependent variable i.e., job satisfaction (JS), while the remaining percentage (i.e., 77%) is due to other factors that were not examined in the present model. Concerning the findings of the ANOVA test ($f=96.613$, $P < 0.05$), the test's value was highly significant. It connoted that the model provides a better fit than the intercept-only model. The value of the *t*-test ($t=9.829$, $P < 0.05$) was significant and thence the independent variable was a significant variable in this equation. The result supported the hypothesis, transformational leadership style (TFL) positively influences job satisfaction (JS). Specifically, a change of one unit in the transformational leadership style (TFL) would result in a difference of 0.497 units in job satisfaction (JS) in a progressive direction. Based on all these statistics, the estimated regression equation should be:

$$\widehat{JS} = 1.391 + 0.497 (TFL) + E$$

4.6.1.2. Testing Hypothesis H2

Transformational leadership style (TFL) positively influences organizational commitment (OC)

TABLE 4.8: Influence of TFL on OC

Independent Variable	β_j	Std. Error	T-test	P	R	R ²	Sig.
Constant	1.703	0.087	19.575**	0.000	0.318	0.101	f=35.988** P=0.000
TFL	0.206	0.034	5.999**	0.000			

Dependent Variable: OC

To examine the hypothesized influence of transformational leadership style (TFL) on organizational commitment (OC), a simple linear regression analysis was applied. Data in Table 4.8 offered that transformational leadership style (TFL) had a statistically significant effect on organizational commitment (OC) ($P < 0.05$). The value of R was 0.318 and the R² was (0.101) which denotes that the independent variable, transformational leadership style (TFL) explained about 10% of the variance of the dependent variable, organizational commitment (OC), while the remaining percentage (i.e., 90%) is due to the contribution of other variables that were not included in the model. Concerning the findings of the ANOVA test ($f=35.988, p < 0.05$), the test value was substantially significant. It denoted that the model provides a better fit than the intercept-only model. The value of the *t*-test ($t=5.999, p < 0.05$) was significant and thence the predictor variable was a significant variable in the regression's equation. The result upheld the hypothesis, transformational leadership style (TFL) positively influences organizational commitment (OC). More specifically, a change of one unit in the transformational leadership style (TFL) would result in a difference of 0.206 units in organizational commitment (OC) in a specific direction. Grounded on all these statistics, the estimated regression equation should be:

$$\widehat{OC} = 1.703 + 0.206 (TFL) + E$$

4.6.1.2.1. Testing Sub Hypothesis H2a

Transformational leadership style (TFL) positively influences affective commitment (AC).

TABLE 4.9: Influence of TFL on AC

Independent Variable	β_j	Std. Error	T-test	P	R	R ²	Sig.
Constant	1.666	0.129	12.887**	0.000	0.282	0.080	f=27.594** P=0.000
TFL	0.268	0.051	5.253**	0.000			

Dependent Variable: AC

To investigate the positive influence of the transformational leadership style (TFL) on affective commitment (AC), a simple linear regression analysis was used. Data in Table 4.9 revealed that the transformational leadership style (TFL) had a statistically significant effect on affective commitment (AC) ($P < 0.05$). The value of R was 0.282 and the R² was almost 0.080 which means that the independent variable, transformational leadership style (TFL) explained about 8% of the variance of the predicted variable affective commitment (AC), while the remaining percentage (i.e., about 92%) is due to the contribution of other variables that were not covered by the present model. Concerning the ANOVA test's results ($f=27.594, p < 0.05$), the test value was substantially significant. It manifested that the model provides a better fit than the intercept-only model. The value of the *t*-test ($t=5.253, p < 0.05$) was significant thus, the independent variable was a significant variable in this equation. The findings upheld the sub-hypothesis H2a, transformational leadership style (TFL) positively influences affective commitment (AC). Specifically, a change of one unit in the transformational leadership style (TFL) would result in a difference of 0.268 units in affective commitment (AC) in a specific direction. Based on the above linear regression statistics, the estimated regression equation should be:

$$\widehat{AC} = 1.666 + 0.268 (TFL) + E$$

4.6.1.2.2. Testing Sub Hypothesis H2b

Transformational leadership style (TFL) positively influences continuance commitment (CC).

TABLE 4.10: Influence of TFL on CC

Independent Variable	β_j	Std. Error	T-test	P	R	R ²	Sig.
Constant	1.857	0.092	20.147**	0.000	0.079	0.006	f=1.979 P=0.160
TFL	0.051	0.036	1.407**	0.160			

Dependent Variable: CC

In order for testing the positive influence of the transformational leadership style (TFL) on continuous commitment (CC), a simple linear regression analysis was applied. Data in Table 4.10 offered that the transformational leadership style (TFL) had no statistically significant effect on continuous commitment (CC) ($P > 0.05$). The value of R was 0.079 and the R^2 was 0.006 which means that the independent variable, transformational leadership style (TFL) explained only 0.6% of the variance of the predicted variable i.e., continuous commitment (CC), while the remainder (i.e., 99.4%) is attributed to other variables that were not tested in the current model. Concerning the results obtained from the ANOVA test ($f=1.979$, $p > 0.05$), the test value was insignificant. It pointed out that the model did not provide a better fit than the intercept-only model. The value of the t -test ($t=1.407$, $p > 0.05$) was insignificant and hence the independent variable was an insignificant variable in this equation. The result did not support the sub-hypothesis H2b, transformational leadership style (TFL) positively influences continuous commitment (CC).

4.6.1.2.3. Testing Sub Hypothesis H2c

Transformational leadership style (TFL) positively influences normative commitment (NC)

TABLE 4.11: Influence of TFL on NC

Independent Variable	β_j	Std. Error	T-test	P	R	R^2	Sig.
Constant	1.586	0.116	13.717**	0.000	0.344	0.118	$f=42.880^{**}$ $P=0.000$
TFL	0.299	0.046	6.548**	0.000			

Dependent Variable: NC

For examining the positive influence of the transformational leadership style (TFL) on normative commitment (NC), a simple linear regression analysis was carried out. Data in Table 4.11 revealed that the transformational leadership style (TFL) had a statistically significant impact on normative commitment (NC) ($P < 0.050$). The value of R was 0.344 and the R^2 was (0.118) which signifies that the independent variable, namely transformational leadership style (TFL) explained 11.8% of the variance of the predicted variable i.e., normative commitment (NC), while the remaining percentage (i.e., 88.2%) is attributed to other variables that were not existed in this regression model. Concerning the findings of the ANOVA test ($f=42.880$, $p < 0.05$), the test value was highly significant. It ticked that the model provides a better fit than the intercept-only model. The value of the t -test ($t=6.548$,

$p < 0.05$) was significant and hence the predictor variable was an important variable in the estimated equation. The result supported the sub-hypothesis H2c, transformational leadership style (TFL) positively influences normative commitment (NC). Specifically, a change of one unit in the transformational leadership style (TFL) would result in a difference of 0.299 units in normative commitment (NC) in a constructive direction. Based on the above linear regression statistics, the estimated regression equation should be:

$$\widehat{NC} = 1.586 + 0.299 (TFL) + E$$

4.6.1.3. Testing Hypothesis H3

Transactional leadership style (TSL) positively influences job satisfaction (JS).

TABLE 4.12: Influence of TSL on JS

Independent Variable	β_j	Std. Error	T-test	P	R	R ²	Sig.
Constant	1.605	0.177	9.143**	0.000	0.285	0.081	f=28.165** P=0.000
TSL	0.444	0.084	5.307**	0.000			

Dependent Variable: JS

To examine hypothesis H3, a simple linear regression analysis was executed. Data in Table 4.12 showed that transactional leadership style (TSL) had a statistically significant impact on job satisfaction (JS) ($p < 0.05$). The value of R was 0.285 and the R² was (0.081) which clues that the independent variable transactional leadership style (TSL) explained about 8% of the variance of the dependent variable job satisfaction (JS), while the remaining percentage (i.e., 92%) is due to the contribution of other variables that were not entered into this model. Concerning the findings obtained from the ANOVA test (f=28.165, $P < 0.05$), the test value was mightily significant. It referred that the model provides a better fit than the intercept-only model. The value of the t-test (t=5.307, $P < 0.05$) was significant and thence the predictor variable was a critical variable in the current regression equation. The results yielded propped the hypothesis that transactional leadership style (TSL) positively influences job satisfaction (JS). Specifically, a change of one unit in the transactional leadership style (TSL) would result in a difference of 0.444 units in Job Satisfaction (JS) in a specific direction. Based on all these statistics, the estimated regression equation should be:

$$\widehat{JS} = 1.605 + 0.444 (TSL) + E$$

4.6.1.4. Testing Hypothesis H4

Transactional leadership style (TSL) positively influences organizational commitment (OC).

TABLE 4.13: Influence of TSL on OC

Independent Variable	β_j	Std. Error	T-test	P	R	R ²	Sig.
Constant	1.595	0.109	14.571**	0.000	0.304	0.092	f=32.429** P=0.000
TSL	0.297	0.052	5.695**	0.000			

Dependent Variable: OC

To prove hypothesis H4, a simple linear regression analysis was executed. Data in Table 4.13 displayed that transactional leadership style (TSL) had a statistically significant influence on organizational commitment (OC) ($P < 0.05$). The value of R was 0.304 and the R² was (0.092) which signifies that the independent variable, i.e., transactional leadership style (TSL) explained 9.2% of the variation of the predicted variable, i.e., organizational commitment (OC), while the remainder (i.e., 90.8%) is attributed to other variables that were not considered in this model. Concerning the findings yielded of the ANOVA test ($f=32.429$, $p < 0.05$), the test value was substantially significant. It implies that the current model provides a better fit than the intercept-only model. The value of the t-test ($t=5.695$, $p < 0.05$) was significant therefore, the independent variable was a critical variable in the present regression equation. The results backup hypothesis H4 that transactional leadership style (TSL) positively influences organizational commitment (OC). Specifically, a change of one unit in the transactional leadership style (TSL) would result in a difference of 0.297 units in organizational commitment (OC) in a specific direction. Based on the above linear regression statistics, the estimated regression equation should be:

$$\widehat{OC} = 1.595 + 0.297 (TSL) + E$$

4.6.1.4.1. Testing Sub Hypothesis H4a

Transactional leadership style (TSL) positively influences affective commitment (AC).

TABLE 4.14: Influence of TSL on AC

Independent Variable	β_j	Std. Error	T-test	P	R	R ²	Sig.
Constant	1.611	0.164	9.840**	0.000	0.240	0.058	f=19.440** P=0.000
TSL	0.344	0.078	4.409**	0.000			

Dependent Variable: AC

For testing the sub-hypothesis H4a, a simple linear regression analysis was performed. Data in Table 4.14 exhibited that transactional leadership style (TSL) had a statistically significant impact on affective commitment (AC) ($P < 0.05$). The value of R was 0.240 and the R² was (0.058) which denotes that the independent variable, i.e., transactional leadership style (TSL) explained 5.8% of the variance of the predicted variable i.e., affective commitment (AC), while the remaining percentage (i.e., 94.2%) is due to the contribution of other variables that were not examined in the current model. Concerning the results obtained from the ANOVA test ($f = 19.440$, $P < 0.05$), the test value was mightily significant. It set forth that the model provides a better fit than the intercept-only model. The value of the t-test ($t = 4.409$, $p < 0.05$) was significant and thus the predictor variable was an important variable in this equation. The findings supported the sub-hypothesis H4a that transactional leadership style (TSL) positively influences affective commitment (AC). Specifically, a change of one unit in the transactional leadership Style (TSL) would result in a difference of 0.344 units in affective commitment (AC) in a constructive direction. Grounded on all these statistics, the estimated regression equation should be:

$$\widehat{AC} = 1.611 + 0.344 (TSL) + E$$

4.6.1.4.2. Testing Sub Hypothesis H4b

Transactional leadership style (TSL) positively influences continuance commitment (CC).

TABLE 4.15: Influence of TSL on CC

Independent Variable	β_j	Std. Error	T-test	P	R	R ²	Sig.
Constant	1.629	0.114	14.293**	0.000	0.176	0.031	f=10.157 P=0.002
TSL	0.173	0.054	3.187	0.002			

Dependent Variable: CC

To prove sub-hypothesis H4b, a simple linear regression analysis was executed. Data in Table 4.15 exhibited that transactional leadership style (TSL) had a statistically significant effect on continuance commitment (CC) ($p < 0.05$). The value of R was 0.176 and the R^2 was (0.031) which signalizes that the independent variable, i.e., transactional leadership style (TSL) explained only about 3% of the variation of the predicted variable i.e., continuance commitment (CC), while the remaining percentage (i.e., 97%) is attributed to other variables that were not entered into this model. Concerning the results of the ANOVA test ($f = 10.157$, $p < 0.05$), the test value was highly significant. It indicated the model provides a better fit than the intercept-only model. The value of the t-test (3.187, $P < 0.05$) was significant thus, the independent variable was a significant variable in this equation. The result supported the sub-hypothesis H4b, that transactional leadership style (TSL) positively influences continuance commitment (CC). Specifically, a change of one unit in the transactional leadership style (TSL) would result in a variance of 0.173 units in continuance commitment (CC) in a specific direction. Building on these statistics, the estimated regression equation should be:

$$\widehat{CC} = 1.629 + 0.173 (TSL) + E$$

4.6.1.4.3. Testing Sub Hypothesis H4c

Transactional leadership style (TSL) positively influences normative commitment (NC).

TABLE 4.16: Influence of TSL on NC

Independent Variable	β_j	Std. Error	T-test	P	R	R^2	Sig.
Constant	1.545	0.148	10.454**	0.000	0.285	0.081	$f=28.214^{**}$ $P=0.000$
TSL	0.374	0.070	5.312**	0.000			

Dependent Variable: NC

To confirm the sub-hypothesis H4c, a simple linear regression analysis was performed. Data in Table 4.16 offered that transactional leadership style (TSL) had a statistically significant impact on normative commitment (NC) ($P < 0.05$). The value of R was 0.285 and the R^2 was (0.081) which implies that the independent variable i.e., transactional leadership style (TSL) explained about 8% of the variations of the predicted variable i.e., normative commitment (NC), while the remaining percentage (i.e., about 92%) is attributed to other variables that were not tested in this model. Concerning the findings yielded from the

ANOVA test ($f = 28.214$, $P < 0.05$), the value of the test was substantially significant. It indicates that the model provides a better fit than the intercept-only model. The value of the t-test ($t = 5.312$, $P < 0.05$) was significant, therefore, the predictor variable was a critical variable in this model. The results upheld the sub-hypothesis H4c, transactional leadership style (TSL) positively influences normative commitment (NC). Specifically, a change of one unit in the transactional leadership style (TSL) would result in a difference of 0.374 units in normative commitment (NC) in a specific direction. Based on all these statistics, the estimated regression equation should be:

$$\widehat{NC} = 1.545 + 0.374 (TSL) + E$$

4.6.2. Moderation Effect Analysis

The moderating effect denotes a third variable influencing the relations between two independent and dependent variables (Cohen et al., 2003). This situation is also known as an interaction effect (Hair et al., 2019). Moderating variables is an effective way to enhance business research designs, thus providing more realistic and accurate results (Badaoui, 2019). The moderating variable may be a qualitative variable or a quantitative variable that affects the strength and direction of the relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variable. If there is a change in the effects of the independent or dependent variable, then the moderating variable has an effective role. Otherwise, the relationship between the two variables (independent and dependent) remains the same (ibid).

To investigate the effect of the moderated variable on the relationship between independent and dependent variables, first, the standardized value of independent variables (independent and moderator) was computed. Second, creating the interaction effect by multiplying the standardized value of the moderator variable with the standardized value of the independent variable. The moderating variables' effect can reinforce the relationship between the main independent variable and the dependent, weaken the relation between these two variables, or not affect that relationship (Cohen et al., 2003; Hair et al., 2019).

For instance, if "X" is an independent variable and "Y" is dependent, the regression equation can depict the relationship between the two variables as follows:

$$\hat{Y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$$

If a moderator variable "Z" is introduced, then the regression model in this case can be described as follows:

$$\hat{Y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z + \beta_3 XZ$$

The "XZ" is the interaction between the main independent variable and the moderator variables. If the p-value for the coefficient of "XZ" in the regression output is statistically significant, it could be concluded that there is a significant interaction between "X" and "Z", and thus "Z" should be involved in the regression model as a moderator variable (Cohen et al., 2003; Hair et al., 2019).

4.6.2.1. Testing Hypothesis H5

Power Distance Orientation (PDO) moderates the relationship between transformational leadership style (TFL) and job satisfaction (JS).

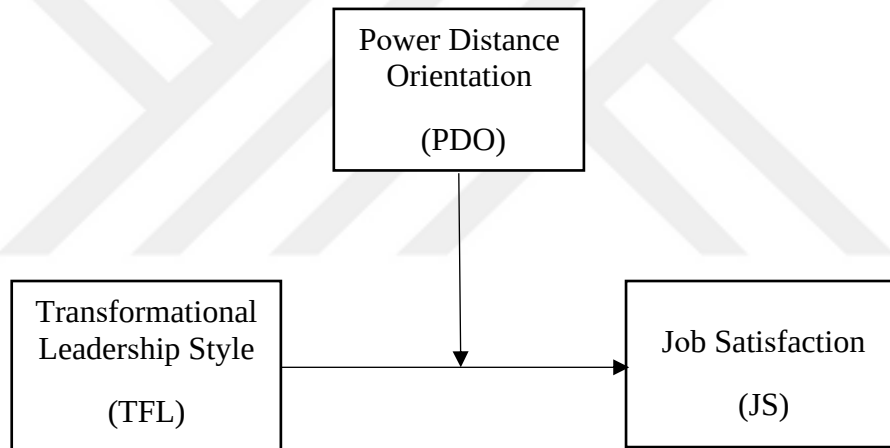


Figure 4.10: PDO moderates the relationship between TFL and JS

To investigate the fifth hypothesis H5 (Figure 4.10), hierarchical multi-regression was used as shown in Table (4.17).

TABLE 4.17: PDO Moderates the Relationship Between TFL and JS

Model	Independent Variable	Coefficient	t-statistic	P-value	R ²	F- Ratio
Without moderation effect	Constant	1.125	7.319**	0.000	0.244	51.192**
	TFL	0.473	9.192**	0.000		
	PDO	0.134	2.159*	0.032		
With moderation effect	Constant	0.555	7.5722**	0.000	0.252	35.623**
	TFL	0.453	8.646**	0.000		
	PDO	0.141	2.276*	0.024		
	Interaction	-0.077	-1.907	0.057		

Dependent Variable: JS

Table 4.17 showed that with the inclusion of the interaction effect of power distance orientation (PDO) in the relationship between transformational leadership style (TFL) and job satisfaction (JS). The value of R² was changed from 0.244 to 0.252, which showed that 25.5% of the variation in job satisfaction (JS) was represented by transformational leadership style (TFL) where power distance orientation (PDO) was a moderator variable. Moreover, though still more accurate prediction about job satisfaction (JS) could be done (F-ratio =51.192, P-value < 0.05) with the inclusion of the interaction effect, this accuracy has decreased i.e., F-ratio decreased from 51.192 to 35.623. This f-statistic indicates whether the regression model provides a better fit to the data than a model that contains no independent variables. With and without moderation effect, both variables, transformational leadership style (TFL), and power distance orientation (PDO) had a significant impact on job satisfaction (JS). The t-test values for both variables were significant. However, with the moderation effect, the interaction effect had an insignificant t-test (t=1.907, P>0.05) which showed no support for the H5 hypothesis that power distance orientation (PDO) moderates the relationship between transformational leadership style (TFL) and job satisfaction (JS). This means that there was no moderating effect of Individual-level power distance orientation (PDO) on the relationship between transformational leadership style (TFL) and job satisfaction (JS).

4.6.2.2. Testing Hypothesis H6

Power distance orientation (PDO) moderates the relationship between transformational leadership style (TFL) and organizational commitment (OC).

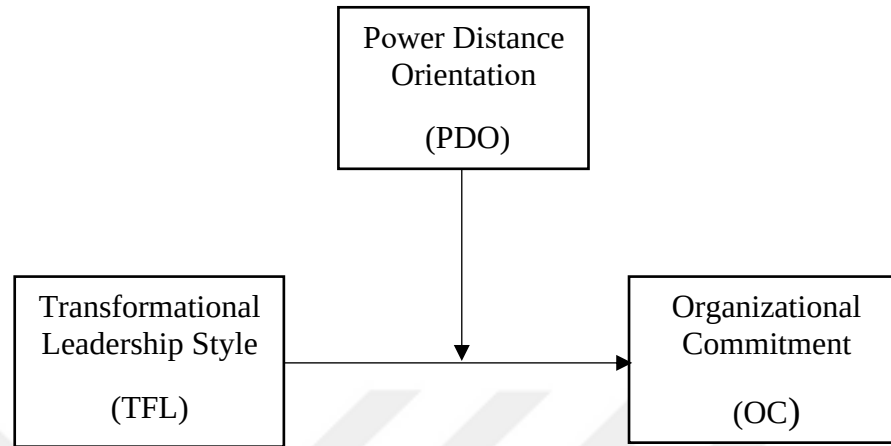


Figure 4.11: PDO moderates the relationship between TFL and OC

To investigate the sixth hypothesis, H6 (Figure 4.11), hierarchical multi-regression was used (Table 4.18).

TABLE 4.18: PDO Moderates the Relationship Between TFL and OC

Model	Independent Variable	Coefficient	t-statistic	P-value	R ²	F- Ratio
Without moderation effect	Constant	1.547	14.875**	0.000	0.121	21.958**
	TFL	0.186	5.341**	0.000		
	PDO	0.133	2.683**	0.008		
With moderation effect	Constant	1.559	14.739**	0.000	0.122	14.747**
	TFL	0.181	5.094**	0.009		
	PDO	0.114	2.716	0.024		
	Interaction	-0.017	-0.638	0.524		

Dependent Variable: OC

Table 4.18 showed that with the inclusion of the interaction effect of power distance orientation (PDO) in the relationship between transformational leadership style (TFL) and organizational commitment (OC). The value of R² was slightly changed from 0.121 to 0.122,

which showed that 12.2% of the variation in organizational commitment (OC) was represented by transformational leadership style (TFL) where power distance orientation (PDO) was a moderator variable. Furthermore, though still more accurate prediction about organizational commitment (OC) could be done ($F\text{-ratio}=21.958$, $P\text{-value}<0.05$) with the inclusion of the interaction effect, this accuracy has decreased i.e., $F\text{-ratio}$ decreased from 21.958 to 14.747. This $f\text{-statistic}$ connotes whether the regression model provides a better fit to the data than a model that contains no independent variables. With and without moderation effect, both variables, transformational leadership style (TFL), and power distance orientation (PDO) had a significant impact on organizational commitment (OC). However, with the moderation effect, the interaction effect had an insignificant $t\text{-test}$ ($t=0.638$, $P>0.05$) which offered no backup for the H6 hypothesis that power distance orientation (PDO) moderates the relationship between transformational leadership style (TFL) and organizational commitment (OC). Therefore, there was no a moderating effect of Individual-level power distance orientation (PDO) on the relationship between transformational leadership style (TFL) and organizational commitment (OC).

4.6.2.3. Testing Hypothesis H7

Power distance orientation (PDO) moderates the relationship between transactional leadership style (TSL) and job satisfaction (JS).

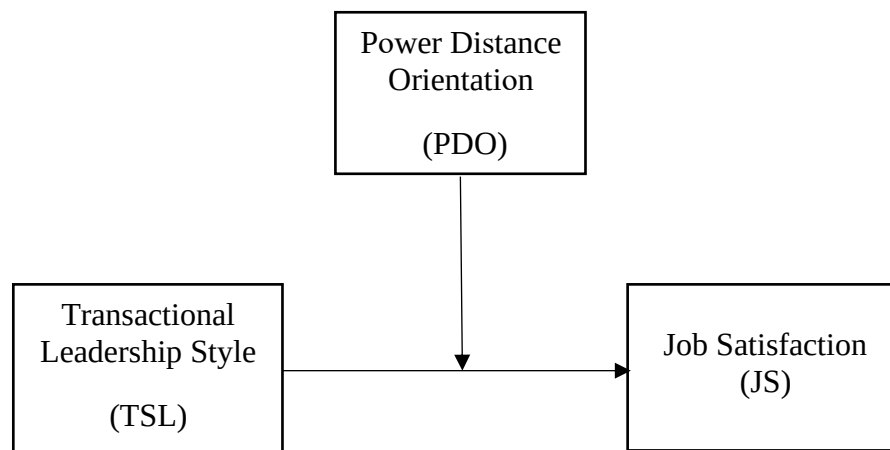


Figure 4.12: PDO moderates the relationship between TSL and JS

To investigate the seventh hypothesis, H7 (Figure 4.12), hierarchical multi-regression was used (Table 4.19).

TABLE 4.19: PDO Moderates the Relationship Between TSL and JS

Model	Independent Variable	Coefficient	t-statistic	P-value	R ²	F- Ratio
Without moderation effect	Constant	1.430	7.564**	0.000	0.097	17.140**
	TSL	0.382	4.392**	0.000		
	PDO	0.166	2.387*	0.018		
With moderation effect	Constant	1.424	7.590**	0.000	0.113	13.512**
	TSL	0.382	4.430**	0.000		
	PDO	0.184	2.660**	0.008		
	Interaction	-0.099	-2.397*	0.017		

Dependent Variable: JS

Table 4.19 showed that with the inclusion of the interaction effect of power distance orientation (PDO) in the relationship between transactional leadership style (TSL) and job satisfaction (JS). The value of R² was changed from 0.097 to 0.113, which showed that 11.3% of the variation in job satisfaction (JS) was represented by transactional leadership style (TSL) where power distance orientation (PDO) was a moderator variable. Moreover, despite still more accurate prediction about job satisfaction (JS) could be done (F-ratio =17.140, p-value<0.05) with the inclusion of the interaction effect, this accuracy has decreased i.e., F-ratio decreased from 17.140 to 13.512. This f-statistic signalizes whether the regression model provides a better fit to the data than a model that contains no independent variables. With and without moderation effect, both variables, transactional leadership style (TSL), and power distance orientation (PDO) had a significant impact on job satisfaction (JS). The t-test values for both variables were significant. However, with the moderation effect, the interaction effect had a significant t-test (t=2.397, p<0.05) which showed support for the H7 hypothesis that power distance orientation (PDO) moderates the relationship between transactional leadership style (TSL) and job satisfaction (JS). Therefore, there was a negative moderating effect of Individual-level power distance orientation (PDO) on the relationship between transactional leadership style (TSL) and job satisfaction (JS). Grounded on these statistics, the estimated regression equation should be:

$$\widehat{JS} = 1.424 + 0.382 (TSL) + 0.184 (PDO) - 0.099 (TSL \times PDO) + E$$

4.6.2.4. Testing Hypothesis H8

Power distance orientation (PDO) moderates the relationship between transactional leadership style (TSL) and organizational commitment (OC).

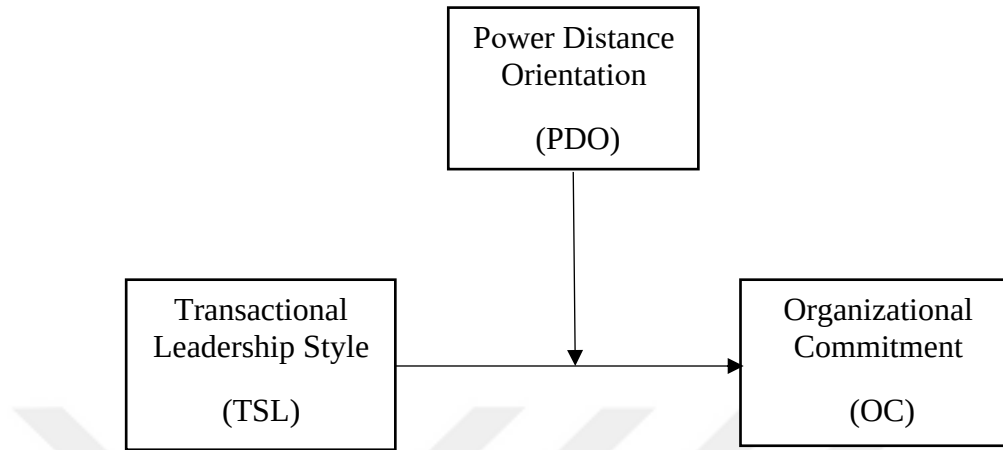


Figure 4.13: PDO moderates the relationship between TSL and OC

To test the eighth hypothesis, H8 (Figure 4.13), hierarchical multi-regression was used (Table 4.20).

TABLE 4.20: PDO Moderates the Relationship Between TSL and OC

Model	Independent Variable	Coefficient	t-statistic	P-value	R ²	F- Ratio
Without moderation effect	Constant	1.490	12.635**	0.000	0.107	19.037**
	TSL	0.260	4.791**	0.000		
	PDO	0.099	2.284*	0.023		
With moderation effect	Constant	1.173	12.627**	0.000	0.111	13.172**
	TSL	0.260	4.797**	0.004		
	PDO	0.105	2.204	0.017		
	Interaction	-0.031	-1.181	0.238		

Dependent Variable: OC

Table 4.20 showed that with the inclusion of the interaction impact of power distance orientation (PDO) in the relationship between transactional leadership style (TSL) and

organizational commitment (OC). The value of R^2 was changed from 0.107 to 0.111, which offered that 11% of the variance in organizational commitment (OC) was represented by transactional leadership style (TSL) where power distance orientation (PDO) was a moderator variable. Further, although still more accurate prediction about organizational commitment (OC) could be done (F -ratio=19.037, P -value<0.05) with the inclusion of the interaction effect, this accuracy has decreased i.e., F -ratio decreased from 19.037 to 13.172. The f -statistic points out whether the regression model provides a better fit to the data than a model that contains no independent variables. With and without moderation effect, both variables, transactional leadership style (TSL), and power distance orientation (PDO) had a significant impact on organizational commitment (OC). The t -test values for both variables were significant. Yet, with the moderation effect, the interaction effect had an insignificant t -test (t =1.181, P >0.05) which showed no support for the H8 hypothesis that power distance orientation (PDO) moderates the relation between transactional leadership style (TSL) and organizational commitment (OC). Therefore, there was no moderating effect of Individual-level power distance orientation (PDO) on the relation between transactional leadership style (TSL) and organizational commitment (OC).

4.6.3. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis

To find out which leadership style, transformational or transactional, best influences employee's work outcomes (Hypothesis H9), hierarchical multiple regression analysis was done similarly to the above but without introducing the power distance orientation variable into the analysis model. Hierarchical regression is a sequential process involving the entry of predictor variables into the analysis in steps. This analysis is considered useful for evaluating the contributions of predictors above and beyond previously entered predictors, as a tool of statistical control and for examining incremental validity. The second equation includes the original predictor variables from the first equation along with an added predictor variable and interpretation depends on the change in values F and R^2 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014).

In this study, for the purpose of identifying which of the leadership styles is the most influential (Hypothesis H9), the transformational leadership style variable was introduced first, then the transactional leadership style variable was added as shown in Table 4.21.

4.6.3.1. Testing Hypothesis H9

In the Libyan context, the transformational leadership style (TFL) influences employee's work outcomes (EWO) better than the transactional leadership style (TSL).

TABLE 4.21: Hieratical Multiple Regression Analysis

Model	Independent Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients Beta	Significant of coefficient		ANOVA	
		β	Std. Error		t	Sig.	f	Sig.
1	Constant	1.507	0.091	----	16.607**	0.000	96.329	0.000
	TFL	0.351	0.036	0.482	9.815**	0.000		
	R =0.482 R ² =0.232 Adj R ² =0.230 R ² Change =0.232 Std. Error of Estimate =0.515							
2	Constant	1.392	0.117	----	11.900**	0.000	49.594	0.000
	TFL	0.313	0.043	0.429	7.222**	0.000		
	TSL	0.102	0.066	0.093	1.558	0.120		
	R = 0.488 R ² =0.238 Adj R ² =0.233 R ² Change =0.006 Std. Error of Estimate =0.514							
Excluded Variables								
Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation		Collinearity	
							Toleran	VIF
1	TSL	0.093	1.558	0.120	0.087		0.679	1.473

Dependent Variable: EWO

In accordance with the data in Table 4.21, the findings of the ANOVA test for Model 1 indicated a statistically significant value where ($f = 96.329$, $p < 0.01$). It noted that the form provided a better fit than the intercept-only model. The transformational leadership style (TFL) value for the t-test ($t = 9.815$, $p < 0.01$) was significant and thence, this independent variable was a significant variable in this model. The transformational leadership style Factor (TFL) was 0.351. This means that for every one-point increase in the transformational leadership style (TFL) score, there is an increase in the employee's work outcome (EWO) score by 0.351 in a constructive direction. The R value was 0.482 and the R^2 was (0.232), which implies that the independent variable, i.e., transformational leadership style (TFL) explained about 23% of the variance in the dependent variable employee's work outcomes (EWO).

Regarding Model 2, after adding the transactional leadership style (TSL) variable. The results of the ANOVA test were statistically significant where ($f = 49.594$, $p < 0.05$). It noted that the model provided a better fit than the intercept-only model. The R^2 value was changed slightly from 0.232 to 0.238, which showed that about 23.8% of the variance in employee's work outcomes (EWO) was represented by the transformational leadership style (TFL) and transactional leadership style (TSL) together. That is, transactional leadership style (TSL)

contributed only 0.6% to explaining variance in employee's work outcomes (EWO), which was indicated by the R^2 Change = 0.006. Moreover, it is noted that with the inclusion of transactional leadership style (TSL), the accuracy of the model has decreased where the F-ratio decreased from 96.329 to 49.594. Although it still indicates that the model provides a better fit than the intercept-only model ($p < 0.05$), the transactional leadership (TSL) variable was excluded due to the fact that it was not statistically significant where ($t = 1.558$, $P > 0.05$). This in effect means excluding Model 2 and accepting Model 1, showing support for Hypothesis H9 that, in the Libyan context, a transformational leadership style influences employee's work outcomes better than a transactional leadership style. Accordingly, the estimated regression equation, in this case, should be as follows:

$$\widehat{EWO} = 1.507 + 0.351 (TFL) + E$$

4.6.4. T-test for Independent Samples

Finally, in order to explore if there are differences in the transformational leadership practices of bank officials towards their employees on the basis of gender variables, a t-test was performed for independent samples. The independent samples t-test is useful for comparing average scores for two different groups of people or situations. Table 4.22 offers the results of comparing the perceptions' mean of the two groups of male and female employees in the study sample towards the transformational practices of their superiors.

TABLE 4.22: T-test for Independent Samples

Gender	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error		
Male	193	2.454	0.790	0.056		
Female	128	2.327	0.825	0.073		
Equal Variances	F	Sig.	T	Sig.	Mean Difference	Std. Error
Assumed	0.219	0.640	1.385	0.167	0.127	0.917
Not assumed			1.373	0.171	0.127	0.925

Based on the data presented in Table 4.22, it seems clear that the condition for having a variance is not met in the analysis model as the values both of F-ratio is quite small and P-value is greater than 0.05 (F-ratio = 0.219, P-value = 0.640). This result of course indicates

that there is no significant difference between the means of females and males in the study sample in terms of their perspective towards transformational leadership practices. This finding was discussed in the following chapter.

4.7. Chapter Summary

In the first part of this chapter, the results of the descriptive analysis of all the variables of the study were presented, including the description of the sample. Then, data preparation and examination procedures including missing data processing, detection of outliers, and normality were shown. The amount of lost data was very small and it was processed using list-based deletion. Generally, the current research did not show outliers except item Y3, which were treated as missing values to eliminate their impact on the research's overall results. The results of the normality test showed that all the skewness values were less than 2 and the kurtosis values were less than 4, thus, there was no serious violation of the assumption of normality. Moreover, testing that includes both reliable and valid aspects provided substantial evidence that the recommended conceptual model can be verified through hypothesis evaluation. Table 4.23 listed the results summary of all the hypotheses tested in this chapter in order. The data in the table showed that most hypotheses were proven except for four hypotheses: H2b, H5, H6, and H8. According to the results of the analysis, the current research reached the conclusion that the transformational leadership style is applicable in the Libyan cultural context, which supports the idea of the universality of the model. Another important finding is that, in Libyan public banks, power-distance orientation negatively moderated the association between transactional leadership and job satisfaction while failing to support this effect with respect to the rest of the hypothesized relationships. All results are discussed in the next chapter.

TABLE 4.23: Summary of Hypotheses Test Results

Symbol	Hypothesis	Result
H1	Transformational leadership style positively influences job satisfaction.	Supported
H2	Transformational leadership style positively influences organizational commitment.	Supported
H2a	Transformational leadership style positively influences affective commitment.	Supported
H2b	Transformational leadership style positively influences continuance commitment.	Not Supported
H2c	Transformational leadership style positively influences normative commitment.	Supported
H3	Transactional leadership style positively influences job satisfaction.	Supported
H4	Transactional leadership style positively influences organizational commitment.	Supported
H4a	Transactional leadership style positively influences affective commitment.	Supported
H4b	Transactional leadership style positively influences continuance commitment.	Supported
H4c	Transactional leadership style positively influences normative commitment.	Supported
H5	Power distance orientation moderates the relationship between transformational leadership style and job satisfaction.	Not Supported
H6	Power distance orientation moderates the relationship between transformational leadership style and organizational commitment.	Not Supported
H7	Power distance orientation moderates the relationship between transactional leadership style and job satisfaction.	Supported
H8	Power distance orientation moderates the relationship between transactional leadership style and organizational commitment.	Not Supported
H9	In the Libyan context, the transformational leadership style influences employee's work outcomes better than the transactional leadership style	Supported

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1. Introduction

This chapter addresses the findings of the present study and the implications for theory and practice. The chapter is structured into four sections. The first section discusses the findings relating to the research questions raised in Chapter 1. Then, the practical implications and the contributions of the present research are presented. This will be followed by a discussion of the limitations of the current study and directions for future research. The final section of the chapter outlines the most important conclusions reached by the current quantitative study.

5.2. Findings Discussion

For decades, there has been a clear and continuous interest by management researchers in the issue of leadership and its influential role, whether in public or private sector institutions. Scholars in this area have separated amongst various types of leadership styles due to their different leading approaches. The dominant approach in leadership literature has recently been to consider two distinct styles of leadership, namely; transformational and transactional as a part of the important requirements for assisting organizations in their ongoing struggle to increase their competitiveness (Aboramadan & Dahleez, 2020). Because of increasing competition as well as a very complex environment, organizations need a new type of leader who can motivate employees to get outcomes beyond expectations. While the main tool of transformational leadership to motivate employees is intangible rewards (personal development, recognition, self-esteem enhancement), transactional leadership instead uses tangible rewards (money and status). An intensive review of the research work showed that there are significant influential relationships of these leadership styles, especially transformational, on several employee's work outcomes, the most important of which are job satisfaction and organizational commitment (e.g., Osman & Uli, 2014; Lyndon & Rawat, 2015; Gitoho et al., 2016; Gulluce et al., 2016; Abouraia & Othman, 2017; Puni et al., 2018; Kouni et al., 2018; Boamah et al., 2018; Cho et al., 2019; Zainuddin & Asaari, 2020; Mirsultan & Marimuthu, 2021; Skopak & Nereida, 2022). However, a number of studies conducted in different cultural contexts yielded mixed results, creating a gap in the current literature in particular regarding the effectiveness of the transformational leadership paradigm across different cultures (Fries et al., 2021), especially when talking about the Libyan cultural context.

Moreover, most of these studies have not investigated the mechanisms by which leadership influences employee work outcomes.

Therefore, the primary aim of the current quantitative study was to investigate the influence of transformational and transactional leadership styles on employee's work outcomes of job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the Libyan setting categorized as a high-power distance culture. To this end, the relationships of the positive influence of transformational and transactional leadership on employee's work outcomes were proposed and tested. Then the moderating effect of individual-level power distance orientation on the above relationships was examined. In general, the results of the study revealed that both the transformational and transactional leadership styles had a positive effect, and to varying degrees, on the employee's work outcomes, with a preference for the transformational style. In addition, power distance orientation did not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership style and employee's work outcomes. The same applies to the transactional leadership style, but only with organizational commitment. The following paragraphs provide a comprehensive discussion of the findings of the current study within the frame of each question of the study:

5.2.1. The Influence of Leadership Styles on Employee's Work Outcomes

5.2.1.1. Transformational leadership

The findings of the study revealed that the transformative pattern of leadership has a significant positive influence on the level of employee's work outcomes in the Libyan public banking sector. This is in line with most of the research hypotheses that developed in this regard ([H1](#), [H2](#), [H2b](#), and [H2c](#)) except hypothesis [H2a](#) where not supported.

The analysis provides evidence supporting the hypothesis that transformational leadership is a significant predictor of the level of employees' satisfaction, where it has been found that this type of leadership has a significantly positive effect on job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.497$, $p < 0.01$), in addition to its ability to bring about a change by 23% in such a variable. This finding is similar to findings reported by Kouni et al. ([2018](#)) who concluded that transformational leadership intrinsically fosters more job satisfaction as characteristics of this leadership pattern are associated with a high level of motivation at work, corresponding to the employee's needs for recognition, achievement, assumption of responsibility, autonomy, and self-actualization. In this sense, Bass ([1985](#)) earlier documented those employees who work with transformational leaders commonly have a high level of job satisfaction due to

the ability of this type of leader to convey a sense of mission and intellectual stimulation. In a related context, Arnold and Randall (2016) reported empirical evidence that job satisfaction in turn can greatly contribute to creating positive attitudes in employees, enhancing their performance, and producing good relationships in the work-place. The finding of this hypothesis is also supported by more studies that addressed the same relationships (i.e., Abouraia & Othman, 2017; Dappa et al. 2019; Maheshwari, 2021).

With regard to employee's organizational commitment, the analysis also revealed a positive impact of transformational leadership in enhancing the level of employee commitment of Libyan banks. The effect of transformational leadership was significant ($\beta = 0.206$, $R^2 = 10\%$, $P < 0.05$), as well as explaining about 10% of the variance in overall organizational commitment. According to Walumbwa et al. (2005), the linkages between transformational leadership behaviours and organizational commitment are well established. The literature sets forth that by virtue of their characteristics, transformational leaders are able to give employees a sense of attachment or belonging to their organization, making each superior and subordinate feel like a collective unit (Dappa et al. 2019). Thus, such employees with high organizational commitment will always work harder than expected and they will always endeavour more in order to reach the institution's aims (Gulluce et al., 2016). More importantly, contributing to having committed employees will undoubtedly enable the organization to avoid the cost associated with high turnover and absenteeism rates (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016). These results undoubtedly support the notion that transformational leadership is essentially the process of transforming individuals, and a strategy for leadership development by raising these individuals to higher levels of performance and commitment (Gulluce et al., 2016).

Looking at the sub-dimensions of organizational commitment, the present study's findings indicate a positive and significant influence of transformational leadership on affective commitment ($\beta = 0.296$, $P < 0.05$). The variance of 8% in affective commitment was explained by the presence of transformational leadership behaviors. Indeed, this result confirms that the transformational behaviour of managers contributes to some extent to the creation and reinforcement of affective organizational commitment of employees (e.g., having pride in belonging to the institution, caring about the institution's problems, etc.) (Porter, 2015). Cho et al. (2019) think that the creation of such an effect relationship is usually done be achieved through the interaction of the leader with his subordinates to induce them to think about the interests of the organization rather than their own interests, boosting

their morale, encouraging them to make their values align with those of the organization (ibid). According to Newman and Butler (2014), this attachment is also achieved through intellectual stimulation as fostering knowledge-sharing practices by transformative leaders can increase the affective commitment of followers. In this vein, it has been reported that affective commitment is the most appropriate form of organizational commitment in which the effectiveness of leadership styles can be examined (Cho et al., 2019). By definition, affective commitment is unlikely to be influenced by economic (as continuance commitment) and societal (as normative commitment) forces. Therefore, it can be concluded here that such styles of leadership based on vision and intellectual stimulation can be important antecedents of affective commitment.

For the second type of commitment, unlike affective commitment, transformational leadership does not seem to play a significant role in influencing the employee's continuance commitment. According to the statistical analysis, the results yielded were insignificant ($\beta = 0.051$, $p > 0.05$). Thus, contrary to what was expected, Hypothesis H2b was not supported. For interpreting such a result, some argue that transformational leadership is, by its nature, reactive, and therefore is likely not to influence employees to stay in the organization simply because they have to. It is well-known that this type of commitment comes from a perceived sacrifice of investments in the organization rather than willingly, where it mainly reflects the expense costs of leaving versus the benefits of staying (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Hence, it is thought that transformational leadership behaviors may not be as associated with continuance commitment as they are with affective and normative commitment (Alsiewi et al., 2016).

Likewise, the results of the current study found a positive and significant influence of transformational leadership on normative commitment ($\beta = 0.299$, $R^2 = 11.8\%$, $P < 0.05$), which is consistent with prior research (e.g., Porter, 2015; Biza & Irbo, 2020). As shown by the analysis results, the variance of about 12% in the normative commitment of banks' employees was explained by the transformational pattern of leadership. Although this type of commitment differs from the other two types (affective and continuance), it has been found that normative commitment is closely related to affective commitment and shares many of the same antecedents and consequences with it (Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010). As such, it has been reported that the normative commitment of the employee typically grows by idealized influence attributed, idealized influence behaviour, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Meyer, 2016). Consequently, it

can be concluded that normative commitment can be enhanced by having a manager with transformational leadership qualities, which makes the employee feels positively obligated for ethical reasons to stay with the organization for a long time.

Transactional leadership

In general, the results of the study revealed that transactional leadership also has a significant positive impact on the level of employee work results in the Libyan public banking sector. The analysis concluded that hypotheses [H3](#), [H4](#), [H4a](#), [H4b](#), and [H4c](#), were supported. These results will be discussed successively in the following paragraphs.

Regarding job satisfaction, the analysis results showed that transactional leadership is a significant predictor of the level of employees' satisfaction, where it has been found that this type of leadership has a significantly positive effect on job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.444$, $R^2 = 8.1\%$, $P < 0.05$), in addition to its ability to bring about a change by about 8% in the dependent variable. This implies that the healthy implementation of transactional leadership through the indicators of contingent reward, Management-by-exception (Active and/or Passive) can increase the job satisfaction level of employees working at banks. According to Bass and Riggio (2006), transactional leaders try to motivate their subordinates by focusing on giving rewards for what they do. In this sense, Skopak and Nereida, (2022) concluded that contingent reward contributes to greater employee satisfaction when it comes to the style of transactional leadership. Further, Afshari and Gibson (2016) perceive that job satisfaction is usually influenced by the reward size and how individual engagement in the job. For instance, through contingent reward behaviour, leaders evolve a sense of fair treatment in employees in regard to what they are receiving in exchange for their efforts, which increases the level of employee satisfaction (*ibid*). With higher job satisfaction, Avolio et al. (2004) view that employees are expected to maximize their work and be willing to do tasks beyond their responsibilities so as to improve work performance and realize organizational effectiveness. Nevertheless, some studies have found contradictory results. For example, in his study to test the mediating role of job satisfaction between transactional leadership and performance, Paracha et al., (2012) concluded that employees were dissatisfied with their jobs, and yet their level of productivity increased. They attributed this to either the fear of being penalized if the tasks were not completed or the employees hope for promotions or rewards. Similarly, Asghar and Oino (2018) who also found this style of leadership had an insignificant effect on job satisfaction. In any case, the findings of hypothesis [H3](#) here

provides added support for past empirical research that has asserted the ability and importance of transactional leadership practices to bring about positive changes in the psychological states of individuals in the workplace (e.g., Gitoho et al., 2016; Siti & Zainul, 2018; Karya et al., 2021; Skopak & Nereida, 2022).

Concerning overall organizational commitment, the study's findings were in favor of supporting Hypothesis H4 that transactional leadership has a significant positive impact on employees' organizational commitment at $p < 0.05$, as well as explaining about 9% of the variance in overall organizational commitment. This actually implies that banks' employees perceive their head's transactional leadership behaviors can lead to a higher commitment from subordinates' sides to their institutions. Several prior studies support this result (e.g., Yavirach, 2012; Afshari & Gibson, 2016; Njoroge et al. 2017). The reported relationship here shows that by providing contingent rewards and practices of management-by-exception, a transactional leader can evoke loyalty, involvement, and commitment from their subordinates' side. This type of leader, therefore, stimulates employees to perform to higher standards (Mahfouz, 2019). Aarons (2006) maintained that providing rewards and positive reinforcement or mediated by the transactional leader can much help superiors build subordinates' confidence and enhance their organizational commitment.

By examining organizational commitment sub-dimensions, the study results found a positive and significant effect of transactional leadership on affective commitment (in line with H4a) ($\beta = 0.344$, $R^2 = 5.8\%$, $P < 0.05$), meaning that the more transactional leadership practices, the higher the level of affective commitment and vice versa. Whittington et al. (2009) believe that when transactional leaders consistently follow up a reward-for-performance exchange agreement fairly, employees may develop a commitment whereby they decide to stay in the organization because they want to, and feel comfortable staying because they clearly understand what they must do to receive the desired rewards. In contrast, others argue that leadership behaviors that involve providing rewards for meeting agreed-upon goals may not be in harmony with employees' feelings about their desire to stay with the organization (Biza & Irbo, 2020). As such, Hadžiahmetović and Karajbić (2021) concluded that, by its very nature, transactional leadership does not create effective commitment in employees to their organization. Nevertheless, the findings yielded here are consistent with the first viewpoint supported by many prior studies that established a positive relationship between transactional leadership style and the affective dimension of organizational commitment (e.g., Whittington et al. 2009; Osman & Uli, 2014; Zainuddin & Asaari, 2020).

As for continuance commitment, the results of the study revealed a significant positive effect of transactional leadership on such sub-dimension. This clues that the more transactional leadership practices, the higher the level of employee's continuance commitment and vice versa. The beta value of this model was ($\beta = 0.173$, $R^2 = 3\%$, $P < 0.05$). Hence, hypothesis H4b is supported. This result was actually the most expected, given the theoretical assumption that the perceived psychological-transactional contract of employees with the organization may be the antecedent of continuance commitment, where individuals are usually willing to continue as members in the organization when the rewards match their expectations (Meyer, 2016).

Finally, testing the research hypothesis H4c, the result revealed that transactional leadership also played a positive role in influencing normative commitment ($\beta = 0.374$, $R^2 = 8.1\%$, $p < 0.05$). Acar (2012) informed that responsibilities, performance criteria, and expectations of transactional leaders can to some extent create a climate of fairness that promotes followers' normative commitment. When employees feel a fair climate in regard to roles, performance criteria, and rewards, their normative commitment level could be higher.

These findings are in general consistent with prior literature, which established a positive relationship between transactional leadership style and three dimensions of organizational commitment. For instance, Mahfouz (2019) observed that contingent reward and management-by-exception have positive effects on continuance commitment, and contingent reward has a positive effect on normative commitment. Likewise, Keskes (2014) reported that transactional contingent reward behaviour positively links with continuance commitment. This is further supported by research done by Karya et al. (2021) and who commented that practices of transactional leadership generally help to increase the level of followers' commitment and team efficacy. This implies that leaders who clarify roles and task expectations and provide contingent rewards on the fulfillment of contractual obligations will contribute to enhancing the level of organizational commitment of their employees (Sung et al., 2019).

Obviously, these findings anyways indicate that transactional leadership has also the potential to create a positive work environment that supports employees as it basically involves bargaining amongst the superior and the subordinate (Vito et al., 2014). So, it is possible to say also that by embracing a transactional leadership style in given situations, bank officials may attain extra satisfaction as well as committed staff to their institutions. Of

course, any improvement in job satisfaction and organizational commitment would positively contribute to increasing performance quality which will ultimately lead the bank towards more success (Karya et al., 2021).

5.2.2. The Influence of Leadership Styles on Employee's Work Outcomes under the Direct Effect of the Power Distance Value

Apart from the direct relationship between leadership styles and employees' work outcomes, the moderating role of the power distance orientation was evaluated in this research. Against expectation, the findings showed that power distance orientation did not moderate the effect of transformational leadership style on both job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Thus, both hypotheses H5 and H6 that were developed in this regard were not supported, where the beta coefficients for the interactions were insignificant for the two models ($\beta = -0.077$, $P > 0.05$) and ($\beta = -0.017$, $P > 0.05$) respectively. Several empirical studies have highlighted the importance of examining individual variations in cultural values to better understand individuals' reactions to work-related behaviors, including leadership ones. Kirkman et al. (2009) found that power distance orientation negatively moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and procedural justice perceptions. That is, the positive influence of transformational leaders on fairness perceptions among their followers enhances when the power distance orientation of these followers is low. Liu and Liao (2013) concluded that power distance was a negative and strong moderator through examining the relationship between transformational leadership and employees' speaking up. This implies that the relationship was more positive for those lower, rather than higher, in power distance, indicating subordinates with high power distance face difficulty when trying to speak up. Contrastly, Inderyas et al. (2015) found that employee job performance was more positively affected when the leader uses a greater deal of transformational leadership behaviors with subordinates who with higher (not lower) levels of power distance orientation. Indicating that power distance orientation in this case positively moderated that relationship.

However, the findings here, as mentioned above, showed that power distance orientation did not moderate the effect of transformational leadership style on both job satisfaction and organizational commitment. This, of course, implies that the degree to which transformational leadership style influences employee's work outcomes is not affected by varying power distance levels among followers. this may be due to the weak correlation

between power distance and this type of leadership as the R coefficient was only about 0.214. It is therefore very likely that a positive influence of transformational leadership on employee's work outcomes was resulting from the interactive effects by one of the other cultural values such as collectivism versus individualism. Punj and Krishnan (2006) reported that a consistent set of past studies has shown that in collectivistic cultures (as in the Libyan case), transformational leadership is more effective. This is actually in line with what was noted by Jung et al., (1995) and Bass, (1997a) that transformational leadership may be more pronounced in collectivist societies such as those in East Asia. Prior research by Caesar (2016) found that collectivists (rather than individualistic) are more willing to cooperate and build social interaction among employees, they perform more when they perceive that they are in-group. Therefore, when they are accommodated by a transformative leader, they will probably feel more satisfied and committed (ibid).

As for hypotheses H7 and H8, the results of the moderation analyses showed support for the first while they did not for the second, as the beta coefficients of the two models were as follows ($\beta = -0.099$, $p < 0.05$) and ($\beta = -0.031$, $p > 0.05$) respectively. This means;

Firstly, the power distance orientation did not moderate the effect of the transactional leadership style on employee's organizational commitment even though this type of leadership was positively associated with organizational commitment and its three sub-dimensions, as well as its significant correlation with the power distance orientation. However, it was found that the positive effect of transactional leadership on organizational commitment was not affected by the power distance value levels of employees contrary to hypothesis H8.

Second, on the other hand, there was a negative influence of the cultural value of power distance on the relationship between transactional leadership style and job satisfaction. That denotes that the positive influence of transactional leadership practices on job satisfaction is enhanced when employees hold lower levels of power distance and mitigated when they hold higher levels. Simply put, employee's satisfaction can be more positively affected if the leader uses a greater deal of transactional leadership behaviors with subordinates who with lower (not higher) levels of power distance orientation. In fact, these are unexpected results as the previous research works indicate that employees with a lower, rather than higher, power distance are inclined to consider transformational leadership (not transactional) as reasonable, and thus, mostly prefer the transformational (rather than transactional) style of leadership. Nawaz et al. (2020) convey that a high-power distance is typically more supportive

for transactional leadership to prevail because this type of leader prefers to rule with rules and regulations or simply by the book with a high-power distance. Moreover, employees with a high-power distance are also more amenable to transactional leaders. However, the finding here agrees with prior research by Inderyas et al. (2015) who found that employee's job performance was more positively affected when the leader uses a greater deal of transactional leadership behaviors with subordinates who with lower levels of power distance orientation. Pointing out that power distance orientation negatively moderated that relationship.

Nevertheless, the negative moderation, in this case, may be caused by the compensatory effects, as different literature has indicated the great importance that employees with different cultural orientations place on contingent rewards (Hauff & Richter, 2015). For instance, Lyndon and Rawat (2015) noticed that in the Indian cultural context, the contingent reward is perceived as more transformational than the transactional factor. In any case, empirical research reports that leaders who spend more time exhibiting active transactional leadership behaviors such as contingent reward, and less time exhibiting the more passive or corrective kinds of transactional leadership behaviors (such as Management-by-Exception Passive and Management-by-Exception Active) are in general related to high levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Kwapisz et al., 2019). In view of this, a number of authors propose that the contingent reward dimension should be viewed as a separate leadership pattern and it was already identified as the most effective factor of transactional leadership behaviors (ibid).

5.2.3. The Most Influential Leadership Style in the Libyan Cultural Context

To answer and discuss the last research question, a multiple hierarchical regression model was implemented (Table 4.22). It was found from the results of the analysis that the transformational leadership style has a greater and more important impact than its counterpart i.e., the transactional leadership style. The coefficients of determination (R^2 s) for both leadership styles were clearly various, as the first had about 23% and the second had a negligible addition of 0.6%, which designates that the transformational leadership style had a larger share in explaining the variation in the satisfaction and commitment of the bank's employees. Besides, the transactional leadership style had no statistical significance in the model in addition to its weak partial correlation with the employee's overall work outcomes, which made this leadership style excluded from the comparison model ($R_{\text{partial}} = 0.0870$, $P > 0.05$). Accordingly, it can be argued that the leadership style in the Libyan public banking

sector was more transformative than transactional, thus showing support for hypothesis H9. This result is, of course, pre-supported by the results of the means scores of the participants in the study sample (Table 4.5), where the perceptions of transformational leadership of banks' employees in general ($M = 2.4063$) were higher than the perceptions of transactional leadership ($M = 2.0304$).

Therefore, it can be argued that in the Libyan cultural context, the leadership style is more transformational than transactional. This is in line with what has been reported that followers across cultures favor leaders who manifest transformational leadership behaviors (Caza et al., 2021), and that this type of leadership can enhance group outcomes more than its transactional counterpart (Zainuddin & Asaari, 2020). By adopting a transformational leadership style, managers in Libyan banks can enhance employee's work outcomes more than the transactional leadership style does. Another considerable finding which was that no significant difference has been found in t-test findings between bank employees on the basis of gender regarding transformational leadership style practices (Table 4.23). Based on that, it is possible to claim that bank officials emerge as a result of having transformational leadership attitudes and behaviours equally towards all their employees. This further implies that the employees of these banks considered the behaviors that are characteristic of this leadership pattern to be relevant and desirable. Thus, it is expected that bank employees who have a high degree of job satisfaction and organizational commitment will behave far better which eventually gives rise to better organizational performance (Abouraia & Othman, 2017). Avolio et al. (2004) connoted earlier those employees who work with transformational leaders possess a greater amount of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. With this method of supportive leadership, employees are comfortable and satisfied since it stimulates them through embracing a perspective that nurtures staff members, promotes confidence, assists them to create innovatively, individualized consideration, and expands the interaction which eventually develops their level of satisfaction and commitment (Dappa et al., 2019).

As a matter of fact, these results are relevant because they indicate that transformational leadership which is a contemporary and modern concept of leadership has been favoured in the Libyan cultural context. Although this result is inconsistent with the view that a transactional style of leadership in high-power distance cultures is more effective than a transformational style, it is consistent with results obtained from a large number of other relevant empirical studies. For instance, Mirsultan and Marimuthu (2021) concluded that

transformational leadership, in the Malaysian setting, has the potential to create a positive work environment that supports employees more than transactional leadership does. Similarly, Hadžiahmetović and Karajbić (2021) found that the transformational leadership style is well-supported in Bosnian culture described as a high-powered distance culture - as found that the transformational style was often favoured and more connected to the commitment of employees than the transactional style. Moreover, Zainuddin and Asaari (2020) reached that the leadership style in both public and private sector organizations in the Kingdom of Bahrain is more transformational than transactional, denoting that the transformative pattern of leadership is preferable and beneficial across cultures. In fact, most literature indicates that transformational leadership represents the most valuable form of leadership, as leaders give followers the opportunities to change and develop themselves as contributors. They are concerned with their followers' needs and change their awareness of issues by helping them to look at old problems in new ways and they are able to arouse and inspire followers to put out extra effort to achieve organizational goals with high effectiveness (Kabeyi, 2018).

5.3. Theoretical Implications

The theoretical implications of this study are primarily that it addressed a research gap related to Bass's paradigm of transformational-transactional leadership in the Arab-Libyan context. Transformational leadership, in particular, has been the pivot of contemporary leadership research as well as the claim that practices of this type of leadership are applicable across cultures. Yet, there appears to be a dearth of research that explores the effectiveness of this leadership style in Arab contexts, especially in the Libyan context. According to Caza et al. (2021), an understanding of cross-cultural transformational leadership behavior is still incomplete, making further investigation into this direction necessary.

Also, the study addresses another significant gap in the literature by adding a cultural variable (individual-level power distance orientation) to the study model, in an attempt to explore the mechanism or contextual conditions by which a leader's style influences the attitudes or behaviors of the followers. For instance, a number of empirical studies suggested that power distance negatively moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee's work outcomes. That is, the degree to which transformational leadership influences employee's work outcomes depends on the follower's power distance levels. The results of the current study did not signalize any effect of transformational

leadership on employee's work outcomes when interacting with power distance orientation. However, it is considered another important contribution to increasing knowledge of transformational leadership theory as well as the power distance dimension. Perhaps this contribution opens the way for researchers to further investigate, as well as examine the rest of the other cultural dimensions, and determine their effectiveness in interpreting and predicting the results of certain leadership.

Notably, it has been reported that transformational leadership practices in first-world economies is associated with improving performance not only in the private sector but also in the public sector (Kalu, 2010). In addition to its effective role in leading change processes (Appelbaum et al., 2015). As such, it has been proposed that transformational leadership practices should be as much a subject of management training and development in third-world countries as it is in first-world countries (Gumusluoğlu & Ilsev, 2009). Accordingly, this study is expected to contribute theoretically and empirically to enriching the literature and raising awareness level on this contemporary style of leadership and its positive impact on work outcomes in Libyan institutions- particularly since this style of leadership carries with it the idea of "ethical responsibility". This in turn constitutes an effective element in motivating followers to work to the extent that they exceed the limits of their personal interest for the benefit of the organization or the group (Arenas et. al., 2017).

5.4. Practical Implications

In effect, the practical implications brought by this study in this field not only show the effectiveness of the transformational leadership style in the Libyan cultural context but also demonstrate the ability of this type of leadership, if adopted, to increase work outcomes at a rate higher than traditional style (i.e., the transactional style). Accordingly, it is recommended that bank leaders (branch managers, department heads, and others) pay more attention to transformational leadership behaviors particularly and reduce reliance on classical/ traditional leadership styles by developing effective teamwork, mutual trust, and subordinates' empowerment (Biza & Irbo, 2020).

Although the results of the present study did not provide evidence that the effects of transformational leadership are actually based on the followers' low power distance, the nature of this leadership style requires an organizational climate that is generally similar to the characteristics of low power distance. More specifically, for transformational leadership behaviors to work effectively, managers must maintain a good communication relationship

with subordinates, earn their trust, and give them opportunities for achievement and growth (Bass & Bass, 2008). According to the literature, leaders are strongly advised to uphold good practices of communication interaction in the workplace to boost relationships with and among colleagues in order to encourage favorable work outcomes (Alnughaimish, 2018). Thus, it is the responsibility of transformational leaders, as change agents, to create such a climate within the organization. This is typically done by making an alloy of actions. For instance, delegating more discretion to subordinates, removing hierarchical barriers, as well as encouraging and enabling open channels of communication. When leaders delegate more autonomy and responsibility, this has a significant positive impact on organization-based self-esteem and perceived insider status for those low on traditionality (Daniels & Greguras, 2014). Meanwhile, through removing hierarchical barriers and encouraging open channels of communication, managers can listen to their employees and get new or other ideas on their ideas and fix or improve them for the vision and goals of the institution. Further, team members can be able to express their opinions and difficulties, so that subordinates can also share problems with their superiors, not just the good news. Thus, enabling these employees to contribute more effectively to the development of work performance. In general, letting employees share ideas with the boss is vital to the work planning process because when employees feel respected, they contribute more to the discussion process and are more effective.

Ultimately, it can be claimed that the current study's findings provide insight into the kind of leadership most appropriate for bringing about positive organizational changes and improving the quality of job life. Especially since this leadership style can be acquired through, education and/or training programs (Udin et al., 2021). As per Bass and Bass (2008), transformational leadership behaviors can be learned and taught. In this context, a growing trend has been observed in leadership development and training programmes, built on transformational leadership theory, which has made this leadership concept an essential element of modern organizations, especially when leading change processes and empowering employees (Kwapisz et al., 2019). Beugré et al. (2006) reported that managers can be trained in transformational behaviors in several fields such as envisioning, communication skills for conveying a vision, critical evaluation, problem detection, employee empowerment, and impression management. Hence leaders should be provided with frequent training to improve their leadership flexibility and practices. Although the development and change process related to leaders is generally a long-range effort that needs constant updating and feedback, the literature has indicated that leaders view themselves as

more transformed when they receive more leadership training over time. This in fact also supports the positive and important role of training programs and courses in creating a transformational leader compatible with the inherently dynamic banking environment (Puni et al., 2018). Also, to effectively use transactional leadership practices (traditional style), leaders can be trained to communicate with their team members in a formal and engaging way. Finally, in addition to the banking sector institutions in which the study was conducted, Libyan institutions, in general, can benefit from the current study findings as well as attempt to select and hire leaders based on their transformational-transactional leadership attributes and behaviors. They should also pursue employees with potential characteristics of transformational-transactional leadership and prepare them for future positions.

5.5. Limitations and Directions for Future Research

As with most business-related research studies, the current study undoubtedly has some limitations that point to future research directions. An important limitation is that the present study has been conducted in one institutional context only namely, the public banking sector in Libya. Chan and Chan (2005) indicate that the relationships between all research variables may be somewhat inflated due to counting on only single-source data - where using a certain population may reduce the generalizability and external validity of the results. Therefore, the larger contextual domain of study will certainly shed more light on the different dimensions studied to obtain more general results, especially when using participants with different income and educational levels. The results of the present study, however, can be used for institutions similarly situate, as also future studies across different institutional contexts (such as manufacturing, health care, education, and so on) can undoubtedly lead to further important and more accurate conclusions .

Another important limitation is that this study was cross-sectional in nature, which measures employees' perceptions and opinions only at a single/certain point in time. According to Cohen et al. (2007), this means that plain causal inferences concerning the findings possibly cannot be drawn by reason of the high probability that study participants will change their preferences relating to leadership styles over time. Besides the fact that leaders themselves tend to act differently across situations. It is, therefore noted that the longitudinal study on the current research topic will be more suited to future research.

Moreover, despite the great importance of quantitative research methodology and its wide use in discovering and testing many organizational phenomena including managerial

leadership, it alone may not allow a complete comprehension of the relationships between variables of interest (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Therefore, it is pertinent to enhance quantitative research with qualitative research (i.e., following mixed methods) by using a technique of face-to-face interviews with selected participants in future research in order to engage, build confidence, access to meanings, and thus gain better comprehension of the phenomenon under study (see Robson & McCartan, 2016, and also Saunders et al., 2016).

Another potential limitation, as per Hofstede et al. (2010), there are six aspects that measure the cultural effect on the nature of work-related relations. Therefore, a number of researchers have advocated involving more than one cultural value in organizational studies and making comparisons of their effect sizes. In this respect, some literature indicated that the individualism versus collectivism value for instance is one of the cultural aspects largely related to the leadership area along with the power distance value. Mulki et al. (2014) do claim that these two cultural values are closely related. Furthermore, it has been reported that there is a clear correlation between the dimensions of transformational leadership and collectivistic culture's characteristics and that motivating the followers of such cultures is facilitated more by transformational leadership behaviors (see Jung et al., 1995; Bass, 1997a). Nevertheless, only the value of individual-level power distance was scaled in this study. At any rate, future research could develop the current design by adding the cultural value of individualism versus collectivism at the individual or societal level to obtain a better understanding of the relationships under research.

Finally, the sample in this study was picked out from only one country, "Libya". Based on Hofstede, it generally represents a single cultural context. Thus, such a measure may impede the generalizability of the results despite growing claims that there are cultural variances at the individual level within a single country (see Dorfman & Howell, 1988; Kirkman et al., 2009; Smith et al., 2010). At any rate, future studies could validate the findings by comparing with multicultural samples or at least with an additional sample from a different cultural context (i.e., from another different country), and judging the results that would be obtained by following a comparative approach.

5.6. Conclusion

The present study basically investigates the effectiveness of Bass's transformational-transactional leadership paradigm in the Libyan setting that is described with a high-power distance culture. For this purpose, the study followed the quantitative methodology and

cross-sectional survey which was implemented using questionnaires consisting of items on all variables of interest. Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and sub-components of the latter were adopted in the study model as dependent/predicted variables, in addition to the cultural value of individual-level power distance as a moderator variable. The study relied on well-known measures that had been previously developed and used in many past related studies. Leadership styles were measured by Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X-Short), job satisfaction by (JSI), and organizational commitment by (OCQ), while power distance orientation was measured using (PDO) scale. Utilizing the probability sampling method, "321" valid responses were obtained and analyzed using the linear regression techniques by SPSS version 26 software. The participants in the study were white-collar employees working in the public commercial banks' branches located in duo major cities in Libya namely, "Tripoli" and "Benghazi". The results of the statistical analysis supported many of the hypotheses developed for the purposes of the study as discussed in an earlier section of this chapter. Overall, the results revealed that in Libyan public banks, transformational and transactional leadership behaviors positively predict employee's work outcomes of job satisfaction and organizational commitment among employees. Most importantly, the leadership style in the Libyan public banking sector was found to be more transformational than transactional - where the transformational style was more influential, indicating its effectiveness and preference in the Libyan cultural context. Indeed, this implies providing additional support for the notion of the universality of the transformational leadership paradigm and its applicability across cultures including those with a high-power distance.

Beyond that, the results of the study indicated that the cultural value of power distance at the individual level, contrary to expectations, did not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership style and employee's work outcomes, whether job satisfaction or organizational commitment. Previous literature has suggested that the positive influence of transformational leaders on employees' satisfaction and commitment boosts when the power distance orientation of these employees is low, and vice versa.

Two other important findings, where the results of the study revealed that the cultural value of the power distance did not affect the relationship between transactional leadership and organizational commitment. While it negatively affected the relationships between transactional leadership and job satisfaction. The latter finding denotes that the positive influence of transactional leadership on job satisfaction is enhanced when employees hold lower levels of power distance and undermined when they hold higher levels. As manifested

above in the discussion section, the latter finding, in particular, was inconsistent with much of the research work suggesting that the lower the power distance, the greater the chances of transformational, not transactional, leadership practices. To put it in another way, the greater the gap between superior and subordinate (power distance), the greater the chances that transactional leadership style practices will prevail in the workplace (Nawaz et al., 2020). In any case, it is ultimately envisaged that the results of the current study will stimulate further research interest to explore more theoretical and practical implications of the transformational leadership paradigm, in particular, across a wide range of public and private sector organizations in the Libyan setting.

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Appendix I

Questionnaire Cover Letter

Dear survey participant,

I am pleased to invite you to take part in this academic research by completing the attached questionnaire data, which was prepared within the doctoral thesis in Business Administration at "Istanbul Okan University" entitled:

"Leadership Styles and Employee's Work Outcomes in High Power Distance Culture"

As I appreciate the importance of your cooperation and voluntary participation in completing the statements of this questionnaire from your perspective with accuracy and objectivity, I assure you that the data you will provide will be treated with the utmost confidentiality and will only be used for the purposes of the study referred to above.

Thank you in advance for your generous cooperation. If you have any questions regarding this research, feel free to contact me at the e-mail listed at the end of the questionnaire.

Sincerely yours,

Elhassan Alshatshat

PhD Student

Istanbul Okan University, Turkey

Section one: Demographic information

Please tick ☒ in an appropriate box.

Gender:				
Male	☐	Female	☐	☐
Age:				
Less than 30 years	☐	From 30 to less than 40 years	☐	☐
From 40 to less than 50 years	☐	From 50 years to order	☐	☐
Education level:				
High School	☐	Bachelor	☐	☐
Master degree	☐	Doctorate degree	☐	☐
Other (specify)				
Work experience:				
From 1 year to less than 5 years	☐	From 5 to less than 10 years	☐	☐
From 10 to less than 15 years	☐	From 15 years to than 20 years	☐	☐
From 20 years to older	☐		☐	☐
Job title:				
Employee	☐	Head of a unit	☐	☐
Head of a department	☐	Director of an administration	☐	☐
Other (specify)				

Section two: Leadership style

This section aims to assess your perspective on the leadership behaviors of your boss. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement accurately and objectively, by placing a tick (☒) inside the box that expresses your perspective.

Section three: Organizational Commitment

This section is intended to describe your feelings about the bank in which you work now. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement by placing a tick (☒) inside the box that expresses your perspective.

No	Item	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.					
2	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.					
3	I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.					
4	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.					
5	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.					
6	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.					
7	It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.					

8	Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.					
9	Right now staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.					
10	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this Organization.					
11	One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.					
12	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice—another organization may not match the overall benefits that I have here.					
13	I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.					
14	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.					
15	I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.					
16	This organization deserves my loyalty.					
17	I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.					
18	I owe a great deal to this organization.					

Section four: Job Satisfaction

This section is intended to describe how satisfied you are with your current job, please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement by placing a tick (✓) after checking one of the alternatives next to each statement.

No	Item	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1	How satisfied are you with the nature of the work you perform?					
2	How satisfied are you with the person who supervises you—your organizational superior?					
3	How satisfied are you with your relations with others in the organization with whom you work—your co-workers or peers?					
4	How satisfied are you with the pay you receive for your job?					
5	How satisfied are you with the opportunities which exist in this organization for advancement or promotion?					
6	Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your current job situation?					

Section five: Power Distance Orientation

This section aims to assess individual perspective on power distance in your organizational culture. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement by placing a tick (✓) inside the box that expresses your perspective.

No	Item	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1	Managers should make most decisions without consulting subordinates.					
2	It is frequently necessary for a manager to use authority and power when dealing with subordinates					
3	Managers should seldom ask for the opinions of employees.					
4	Managers should avoid off-the-job social contacts with employees.					
5	Employees should not disagree with management decisions.					
6	Managers should not delegate important tasks to employees.					

Questionnaire is ended

Appendix II

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Sample Items:

As a leader

- I talk optimistically about the future.
- I spend time teaching and coaching.
- I avoid making decisions.

The person I am rating....

- Talks optimistically about the future.
- Spends time teaching and coaching.
- Avoids making decisions

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Sincerely,

Robert Most
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Appendix III

Data on the Commercial Banks Working in Libya

No	Bank Name	Sector	Establishment Date	Head-quartered	Branches & Agencies	Official Website
1	Sahara Bank	Public	1964	Tripoli	50	www.saharabank.ly
2	Jumhouria Bank	Public	1969	Tripoli	146	www.jbank.ly
3	Wahda Bank	Public	1970	Benghazi	86	www.wahdabank.com
4	National Commercial Bank	Public	1970	AlBeyda	72	www.ncb.ly
5	AlWaha Bank	Public	2005	Tripoli	8	www.alwahabank.ly
6	North Africa Bank	Public	2006	Tripoli	62	www.nab.ly
7	First Gulf Libyan Bank	Public	2007	Tripoli	1	www.bankfab.com/en-ly
8	Nouran Bank	Public	2008	Tripoli	2	www.nub.ly/en
9	Mediterranean Bank	Private	1994	Benghazi	5	www.meditbank.ly
10	Bank of Commerce & Development	Private	1996	Benghazi	45	www.bcd.ly
11	Aman Bank	Private	2003	Tripoli	33	www.aman-bank.com
12	Alejma'a Alarabi Bank	Private	2003	Benghazi	17	www.ejmaa.aabank.ly
13	AlWafa Bank	Private	2003	Tripoli	3	www.alwafabank.com
14	Assaray Trade and Investment Bank	Private	2007	Tripoli	7	www.atib.ly
15	Arab Commercial Bank	Private	2007	Tripoli	3	www.socialeez.com
16	United Bank for Trade & Investment	Private	2007	Tripoli	8	www.ubci-libya.com
17	Libyan Islamic Bank	Private	2014	Tripoli	6	www.lib.com.ly
18	Andalus Bank	Private	2016	Tripoli	2	www.andalusbank.com
19	Yaqeen Bank	Private	2019	Tripoli	10	www.yaqeenbank.ly
Total					566	

Resource: Prepared by the researcher based on data published on the official websites of the Central Bank of Libya and commercial banks operating in Libya, in addition to data collected over field visits to bank branches represented in the study sample.

Appendix IV

Bank Branches of the Study Sample

المدينة	مصرف الوحدة	مصرف الجمهورية	مصرف الصحارى	المصرف التجاري الوطني	مصرف شمال أفريقيا
الجزائر	الفرع الرئيسي	فرع الظهرة	فرع الرشيد	الفرع الرئيسي	الفرع الرئيسي
	فرع الاستقلال	فرع القادسية	فرع المغاربة	فرع الاستقلال	فرع تاجوراء
	فرع البلدية	فرع القربولي	فرع سيدي الصيد	فرع المغاربة	فرع جزور
	فرع المغاربة	فرع تاجوراء	فرع الجديد	فرع السواني	فرع ابوسليم
	فرع سوق الثلاثاء	فرع تاجوراء الوسط	فرع بالاشهر	فرع بن عاشور	فرع سوق الجمعة
	فرع السواني	فرع المقريف	فرع زنقة	فرع ابوسليم	فرع قصر الاخيار
	فرع حي الاندلس	فرع سوق الخميس	فرع الجامعة	فرع الرشيد	فرع حي الاندلس
	فرع الجادة	فرع الميدان	فرع ترهونة	فرع المختار	وكالة امعيتقة
	فرع الرشيد	فرع العلوص	فرع فرح حمشوق	فرع المايا	وكالة صلاح الدين
	فرع ميدان الجزائر	فرع قصر بن عشرين	فرع الزهرة	فرع باب المدينة	وكالة وادي الربيع
	فرع أبي عيسى	فرع بالخير	فرع جزور	فرع جزور	وكالة سيدي السليح
	فرع طريق المطار	فرع مطار طرابلس	فرع النسيج جزور	وكالة راديسون	وكالة م طرابلس المركزي
	فرع قرية ناصر	فرع برج طرابلس	فرع النجيلة	وكالة السكة 1	وكالة السبيعة
	فرع المعمورة	فرع ترخان ترهونة	فرع ميزران	وكالة كورنثيا	وكالة قصر بن عشرين
	فرع جامع الصقع	فرع جنوب طرابلس	وكالة الخارجية	وكالة النهر الصناعي	وكالة مصنع التبغ
	فرع برج طرابلس	فرع مليانة	وكالة اسبيعة	وكالة فوز زنقة	
	فرع الظهرة	فرع غرب طرابلس	وكالة الدعوة الاسلامية	وكالة عين زارة	
	فرع المقريف	فرع سوق الاحد	وكالة السواني	وكالة سوق الجمعة	
	فرع الجامعة	فرع الكريمة	وكالة المطار	وكالة تاجوراء	
	وكالة اكااديمية الدراسات البحرية	فرع الفلاح	وكالة المدينة القديمة		
	وكالة المؤسسة الوطنية للنفط	فرع حي الاندلس	وكالة القادسية		
	وكالة اكاكوس	فرع عين زارة	وكالة مستشفى الخضراء		
	وكالة المطاحن	فرع رأس حسن	وكالة مركز ططبي		
		فرع سوق الجمعة	وكالة الشط		
		فرع اكااديمية الدراسات العليا	وكالة قرجي		
التيونس	الفرع الرئيسي	الفرع الإسلامي	فرع سوق الجريد	الفرع الرئيسي	الفرع الرئيسي
	فرع المختار	فرع الخليج	فرع سوق النور	فرع و المنعم رياض	فرع السلاوي
	فرع الميدان	فرع القرية السياحية	فرع الفنق	فرع البركة	فرع قمينس
	فرع السوق	فرع النهر الصناعي	فرع المدينة	فرع ميناء بنغازي	فرع الابيار
	فرع الصابري	فرع دريانة	فرع الحدائق	فرع قمينس	فرع سوق العروبة
	فرع الرويسات	فرع تيبستي	فرع المختار للصيرفة الاسلامية	فرع سيدي خليفة	فرع الصيرفة الاسلامية
	فرع الابيار	فرع رأس المنقار	فرع السوق	فرع سلوق	فرع بنينا
	فرع حديقة الشعب	فرع سوق مواد البناء	فرع القويهايات	وكالة القويهايات	وكالة المجمع التجاري
	فرع رجال الاعمال	وكالة م غوط السلطان	فرع جامعة بنغازي		وكالة شركة الانابيب
	فرع جردينة	وكالة المدينة	وكالة الصابري		
	فرع المنارة		وكالة بوعطني		

Note: The shaded cells represent the banking branches making up the study sample.